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ABSTRACT

GRADES OR AGES: Grades 7-12. SUBJECT MATTER: Developmental reading. ORGANIZATION AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE: The guide is divided into nine short chapters and several appendixes. It is offset printed and edition bound with a paper cover. OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES: No objectives are mentioned. General guidelines are given for planning activities to develop reading skills and for activities in specific content fields. An appendix contains a sequential outline of reading skills for developmental reading. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: The appendixes contain annotated lists of teacher references, textbooks, workbooks, films and filmstrips, and mechanical teaching aids. STUDENT ASSESSMENT: The guide suggests appropriate methods for evaluating students. It emphasizes standardized tests. Lists of commercially available texts for diagnosis and evaluation and a list of test publishers are included. (RT)

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Curriculum Guide In Reading

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In Memory
of
Sister Mary Fridian, O. S. F.
and
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THE INDIANA OFFICE OF THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

It is an accepted responsibility of the Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to provide leadership and service toward improving educational opportunity for all citizens in the state.

The Indiana Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction acknowledges the importance of reading in the total program.

The department serves this need by providing funds for summer school reading programs, by encouraging elementary and secondary schools to improve instruction, by upgrading teacher licensing requirements, by supporting the Indiana State Committee on Reading in the development of curriculum guides for all levels of instruction, and by appointing state consultants in reading.

THE INDIANA STATE COMMITTEE ON READING

A committee of distinguished educators with special knowledge of reading was appointed to work with the Indiana Reading Council to provide Curriculum Guides.

This committee completed the *Curriculum Guide for Remedial Reading for Grades Three through Twelve* in May 1965. Its primary purpose is to provide guidelines for organizing summer remedial reading classes under the support program of the Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and for developing remedial reading programs as a part of a total reading program.

Under the leadership of the State Committee on Reading the members of the Indiana Reading Council (IRC) have prepared this *Indiana Secondary Reading Guide* as well as the *Indiana Elementary Developmental Reading Guide* (Grades 1-8).

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PREFACE

The *Indiana Secondary Guide for Developmental Reading* in the Junior and Senior High School (Grades 7-12) is the third in a series of three sponsored by the Indiana State Committee on Reading. The first is the *Guide for Remedial Reading for Grades 3-12*. The second is the *Indiana Elementary Developmental Reading Guides for Grades 1-8*.

At the present, there is a great need for developmental reading programs on all levels of education. In accord with this need, the Indiana Committee on Reading has prepared the present guide as an aid to junior and senior high school administrators, supervisors, and teachers of reading. The specific purpose of this *Secondary Guide for Developmental Reading* is to serve as a practical reference for organizing, conducting, and evaluating developmental reading programs.

Although no absolute line can be drawn between "remedial reading" and "developmental reading," the latter is here taken to imply the various measures taken to improve the reading efficiency of those students who need more practice in reading and the correction of bad habits rather than treatment of impeding physical and psychological handicaps.

I. The Need for Comprehensive Reading Programs

Reading and Society

The ability to read well is essential at all levels of education. The need for education requires no justification in the modern world, nor does the need for reading, for that matter. Yet the question of how reading is to be taught—at what ages, at what stages, and for how long—is a topic of concern for educators, parents, and American society as a whole.

Results from various surveys indicate a need for concern regarding the extent of reading problems at the secondary level. A review of the literature reveals numerous studies which have evaluated the reading status of secondary students and have made recommendations for improvement. Research summaries by Robinson and Dramer (1960a) (1960b) and Helen Robinson (1962) point out the increasing awareness on the part of administrators and teachers of the role of reading in the secondary school. Traxler (1949) and Lazer (1952) reported that 25 percent of all students entering high school were retarded two or more grades in reading. DeBoer (1951) in another study found that among high school freshman, 2 percent read below fourth grade norms, 30 percent below seventh grade norms, and 48 percent below eighth grade norms. In other words, DeBoer (1951, p. 162) found that 80 percent of these students read below their grade norms. Conant (1959), Witty (1956), and others, while not precisely agreeing on figures, indicated in independent studies that 66 to 85 percent of high school students were not reading at grade level.

Hutchinson (1964) examined the quality of secondary reading instruction in Wisconsin and noted general consensus for the need to improve reading but marked deficiencies in the programs offered. In a survey including 50 percent of the fourth and eighth grade population Ramsey (1962) established the need for better reading instruction in the secondary schools of Kentucky. The reading needs of Florida junior high schools were indicated in a survey by Jordan (1958). The Michigan reading program at the secondary level has been

studied a number of times. Smith (1956) surveyed the state's high schools and found that 35 percent offered some type of reading instruction. Geake (1961) replicated the same study five years later and found that the number of high schools offering programs had risen to 50 percent. Simmons (1963) found that 86 percent of the school officials in a sample including Minnesota, North and South Dakota, Iowa, and Wisconsin agreed that each teacher must assume responsibility for teaching reading. However, less than 25 percent of the schools had trained reading personnel. Fifty-seven percent of the schools stated that supervisory personnel in reading did not have adequate training.

Although the holding power of the secondary school has increased markedly since the early 1900's, almost one million adolescents leave the school program yearly. A one to one relationship cannot be established between difficulty in reading and dropping out of high school; however, the relationship is still a strong one. Deficiencies in reading are often the basis for continued frustration in attempting to cope with a changing curriculum which demands advanced reading skills.

People must not only master the mechanics of reading, they must be able to understand, interpret, and discriminate at a high level to be free men in a free society. Education is conceived of not only as a pre-requisite for meaningful participation in a democracy, but is essential for its defense and maintenance.

Reading and the Individual

Reading is not only crucial to society; it is crucial to the individual, especially today in a world where revolutions in technology, communication, and warfare have made change the rule rather than the exception. In such a world reading becomes a means for man to achieve balance by providing knowledge about his environment, why it is changing, and where and how he as an individual can survive and find meaning in his own existence.

Education, and reading in particular, has become an economic necessity in the 1960's. "You can't get today's jobs with yesterday's skills" has become a truism. Today an individual has little chance of getting a job unless his reading comprehension surpasses 25 percent to 30 percent of the adult popu-

lation's reading level which is at the sixth grade level (NSSE, 1956).

Reading and the Schools

Formerly in grades one through six, children were expected not only to grasp the rudiments of reading, but also to refine and polish these skills. They were expected to develop reading habits which would last for a life-time. However, it has become increasingly obvious that the elementary school does not and cannot complete the teaching of the tasks necessary for mature reading skills. Furthermore, many higher reading skills cannot be taught until the individual has developed educationally and intellectually beyond the elementary school level, and, in some cases, beyond the high school level. If reading is conceived of as a thinking process, it then becomes self-evident that the tools for thinking cannot be totally developed at the elementary school stage. A. Sterl Artley (1951) has summarized the case for a reading program which develops as the individual develops. He argues that since intelligence, language ability, and experiential background are in themselves developmental; interpretation, and indeed the ability to grasp and understand and to apply what is read to life situation, parallels growth and development in these areas.

Modern society exists more in change than in stability. The modern child may attend many different schools. The reading program must provide the flexibility to meet the diverse needs of these children. The task of the schools is to develop each individual to full capacity. That this can be done has been demonstrated by reports of secondary reading programs presently in operation.

The desirability of programs which accept the challenge of developing as fully as possible the reading capacities of each individual is evident. Such reading programs have been frequently ill-used and misunderstood. Many programs labeled "developmental" are in reality far from actually fulfilling the criteria for such a program. The most common error is to label a program "developmental" while in fact it is concerned only with remediation of reading disabilities for a small percentage of the student populations.

In secondary school reading the question, "Should we have developmental programs?" is no longer a significant issue.

The crucial questions now concern such issues as how to determine student needs, schedule programs, find trained teachers, provide adequate instruction in content areas, and improve instructional materials. Some broad characteristics of developmental reading programs have already been formulated. The developmental reading programs have already begun to cultivate mastery of skills through systematic teaching. They are directed to all students at all grade levels, reinforcing and continuing instruction in basic skills while at the same time introducing new and more mature skills. Such programs concentrate on the cultivation, extension, and refinement of reading skills for general and specific purposes. They enable the student to adjust his reading skills to a variety of materials with differing degrees of difficulty. The student should be prepared to read for many specific purposes. The ultimate goal of the developmental program would be independence in reading—where the student reads after school instruction and the school day have ended, where he can guide and develop his own reading and where he is capable of locating and using materials to meet a determined goal.

Basic to any developmental program is appraisal of the student's needs through testing. A good program also teaches the reading study skills. In addition good programs provide guidance for growth in personal reading. A good reader is one who reads for his own pleasure. Preferably his interests will broaden.

The good program establishes reading expectancy levels and is so designed as to provide materials for both "slow" and "fast" students to achieve these levels. In addition the program provides for continuous evaluation to keep the students and material in harmony.

The material included in this guide constitutes an overview of the areas and is by no means intended to be prescriptive. The suggestions and outlines presented only begin to mine a vast, profitable area which, for the most part, has been neglected. The extent to which good secondary reading programs are developed is limited only by the insight, creativity, and industry of administrators and teachers in the secondary schools. However, it must be stressed that the effectiveness of a given program is largely determined by the skill with which it is fitted to particular needs and to an already existing curriculum. A successful program must be literally "tailor-made."

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II. The Reading Process

Helping junior and senior high-school students attain proficiency in reading is an *important* goal of education. Unfortunately the goal is difficult to attain because many teachers do not understand the nature of the reading process. Without a clear concept of the nature of reading, teachers cannot develop a satisfactory reading program, evaluate the reading behavior of students, nor appraise materials and methods of teaching reading. The clarification of the psychological concept of reading is the purpose of this chapter.

Reading A Learning Process

Reading is a learning process which begins in early childhood and continues to develop throughout life. Goethe, at the age of 82, confessed that "although he had been at it throughout his long life, he had not yet mastered the art of reading." Yet, the days are not far distant when teachers, parents, and pupils believed that mastery of reading should be accomplished in the eight years of elementary education. Research in reading has established beyond a doubt the falsity of this belief. Growth in reading is the work of a lifetime. The learning process of reading changes from simple word recognition and acquisition of a sight and meaningful vocabulary through different levels of comprehension to a mature act, involving the higher mental processes of understanding, reasoning, memory, and imagination.

The reading process begins with word recognition. The child reacts to each word with mental associations regarding its written form, its sound, and its meaning. He notices the particular fitting of the word in a sentence. As the meanings of successive words become clear, they are focused into thoughts and ideas. The reader keeps in mind the meaning of the first words of the sentence as he reads those that follow. As children advance in reading, they retain the ideas of successive sentences; they recognize the main ideas of paragraphs. At first, they achieve literal meaning of ideas expressed and begin adjusting their rate of reading to the difficulty of the material and their purpose for reading. Later, students go beyond literal meanings in reacting to ideas im-

plied but not stated by the author. They learn to react to the occasion of the writing, the time and place setting, the author's choice of words, and his style of writing.

Integrating the material read with previous experiences, the reader may accept or reject some of the printed ideas. The new concepts may correct earlier ideas or formulate new, broader concepts. These, in turn, become part of the reader's associations in future reading and thinking activities.

The developmental skills listed above do not occur in some definite sequence. While it is true that certain skills are introduced and emphasized at particular stages of development, almost all skills are taught simultaneously. During the first few months in school, the child learns his first words. Immediately teachers encourage him to relate these words to his past and present experiences. The child learns to use context clues, sentence patterns and word-analysis skills. He learns to enjoy new ideas and concepts; he learns to question the author's ideas; he reads critically; his sense of humor, sympathy, balanced judgment, creative ability all come into play. The golden age for the perfection of these important reading skills seems to be the junior and senior high school period, when the exploratory nature of the curriculum provides an opportunity for the student to mature in his reading skills as he uses them in different contexts and for various purposes.

Reading A Visual Process

The reading process starts with seeing, which is the result of coordinating the two eyes carefully and precisely along the lines of print. Binocular coordination in visual performance is a learned process, influenced by maturation, and involves the making of many important adjustments, such as changing foci from various distances to the page of the book, holding simple foci, keeping both eyes moving from left to right, and simultaneously, trying to get meaning from the printed words. This indeed is a complex learning process which, if not learned properly, may involve enough discomfort to make the child reluctant to read. Research has produced considerable evidence to show that defects of vision do not differentiate between good and poor readers. However, certain eye defects such as farsightedness, binocular inco-ordination, difficulty of fusion, and aniseikonia affect reading performance.

Role of Eye Movements in Reading

The eyes move along a line of print in a series of swift movements followed by stops or fixations. Sometimes they move backward, making regressions because of the reader's unfamiliarity with words or phrases or because of a speed of reading not suitable to the difficulty of the material or the purpose of the reader.

Most of the thinking that occurs during reading is done during a period of one-third to one-fourth of a second, the time of fixations. The fixations are the heart of the reading act, for they mark the reaction of the human brain to the material read. Difficult material is read with many fixations.

Speed of Reading

Students should be taught to adjust their reading rate to the nature of the reading matter and to their purpose for reading. There is a physiological limit to the eye span and the rapidity of mental reaction, permitting the eye to see and the mind to interpret not more than 600 to 800 w.p.m. Claims to higher achievement in reading generally refer to the speed of skimming, a skill which assumes vital importance in the current explosion of knowledge and printed material. Unless junior and senior high-school students master the reading skill of skimming, they will be unable to complete their heavy reading assignments in college and adult life.

Reading A Perceptual Process

Reading is foremost a perceptual process which involves visual printed stimuli, the meanings drawn from the reader's past experience, and the response of relating the proper meanings to selected stimuli. An adequate response demands much more than the mere recognition of the meaning of a printed word. It requires reflection, judgment, and critical evaluation in the light of past experience. The reader is totally involved in the reading act. He reads with the apperceptive content of his mind, with his body, his senses, his experiences, and his cultural heritage.

There can be no efficient perception in reading if the reader lacks the biological and mental ability to connect the graphic symbols through recognition, thinking, reasoning and recall of the past and present experiences with an acceptable response. The degree of accuracy of perception depends greatly upon the

number and variety of experiences that the reader has had. Because of this personal nature of perception, there are many possibilities for faulty communication between writer and reader and there is little likelihood that any two readers will give exactly the same interpretation to a given paragraph or reading selection.

In nature and scope, perceptions range from simple, concrete, and specific, to the abstract and generic. Generic perceptions are also called conceptualizations which involve the processes of classification, generalization, analysis, synthesis, and insight. Concepts permit a massive economy in communicating and thinking. Without the mastery of concepts, the development of critical thinking in reading will be inadequate, if not impossible.

The consideration of reading as a perceptual and conceptual process has tremendous educational implications. It delineates the teachers' responsibilities for cultivating direct and vicarious experiential growth of their students. Important ideas and concepts must be developed through numerous educational experiences from day to day. Students grow slowly from concrete and specific learning situations to learning on abstract levels. The majority of junior and senior high school students have reached a level of conceptual development that warrants teaching reading with a great expanse of interpretation and a purposeful increase of the rate of comprehension in reading.

Modern Theories on the Nature of the Reading Process

A recent contribution explaining the nature of reading is the Substrata-Factor Theory of Reading developed by Dr. Jack A. Holmes and Dr. Harry Singer, both of the University of California, Riverside. The theory asserts that "as an individual learns to read, he sequentially develops a mental structure that is complexly interwoven and functionally organized into at least three hierarchical levels. Each level contains information stored in cell assemblies, which has been acquired from instruction and learning in such broadly defined areas as word recognition, word meaning, and reasoning-in-context."¹ As a result of maturation and instruction in reading, these cell clusters are organized into many neurological sub-systems. They are interrelated by a highly efficient neural communication network or working system for solving a particular read-

ing task. Substrata reading centers are in a constant state of flux according to the purposes of the reader and the changing demands of reading assignments. At reading maturity, an individual can mobilize rapidly and flexibly his organization of reading subsystems with a minimum of mental energy.

To reading teachers the Holmes and Singer Substrata-Factor Theory of Reading, although by no means the final answer, offers an isolation of many reading skills. Such a listing of reading skills assumes importance in the planning and structuring of developmental reading programs and shows the sequential development of many reading skills which may not have been recognized in the past. It may pinpoint rather accurately the difficulties which account for retardation in reading at different age levels and thus indicate effective remedial measures. Finally, the Substrata-Factor Theory of Reading may lead to a long-overdue improvement of current standardized reading tests.

Smith and Carrigan proposed a synaptic transmission model theory of reading. It is based on the assumption that nerve impulses transmit across synapses by means of acetylcholine (ACh) and are released with the depolarization of the nerve membrane. After initial contact is completed, the process is repeated until the circuit is broken by the action of cholinesterase (ChE) which reduces the acetylcholine to its non-transmitting components. The level of activity of each of the chemicals and "the directional shift of the imbalance of the chemical mass action within the synapses produce the speed with which a child can read familiar words and the rate, accuracy, and speed with which he can blend phonemes." Smith and Carrigan postulate that since anxiety plus over-, under-, and proper-production of ACh and/or ChE affect reading ability, certain drugs might improve reading by changing the amount of ACh or of ChE influencing nerve impulses transmitted across synapses.

Delacato in his explanation of a neuro-psychological approach to reading theorized that the "physiologically optimum condition which exists uniquely and most completely in man is the result of a total uninterrupted ontogenetic neural development." This development should result in a lateral cerebral dominance which, according to Delacato, has a definite positive relationship with reading achievement.

Kephart built his perceptual-motor theory of reading on the assumption that perceptual processes in reading involve all the complexities of perception in general. Forms themselves must be perceived and spatial structures differentiated. But this is not all. The sequence of words in a line and lines on a page possess a spatial structure which must relate continuously to a temporal sequential process of translation.

Proponents of the four model theories defined above indicate positive results have or will be attained in reading achievement if remedial measures based upon the respective theory are used. Only with time can the real worth and value of these theories be assessed.

Somewhat different theoretical models, really experimental designs or approaches to learning the reading process, include the teaching machine, the Initial Teaching Alphabet (i/t/a), the structural linguistic model, and the nonoral vertical reading technique.

According to Pressey, the inventor of the modern teaching machine, programmed instruction cannot substitute for the teacher and the textbook. He rejects Skinnerian programs as initial teaching devices and believes that autoinstructional procedures should be used after a student has had a chance to read the material in the traditional way. Programmed instruction used with other printed material, should aim at establishing correct responses to specific concepts already covered in material read. If the student has had misconceptions, minute and detailed step by step procedures enables him to rectify mistakes immediately and to reinforce correct responses.

The Initial Teaching Alphabet, introduced in England by Sir James Pitman is aimed at simplifying the alphabet to maximize reading success for beginners. Today it is also used for student and adult non-readers. I/t/a, as this approach is commonly called, lightens the burdens of learning by reducing the complexities of the conventional spelling. Additional symbols added to the twenty-six letter alphabet make possible a nearly one-to-one correspondence between symbols and basic sound units in English. Only lower case letters are used; capitals are enlarged lower case print. As with other experimental approaches, proponents for the i/t/a assert affirmative results from the use of it. The recency of experiments prohibit conclusive statements.

The structural linguistic model is based upon the theory that learning to read is learning to "do" something and must, therefore, be evaluated in terms of the completeness and efficiency of performance. Fries states that a student can read in so far as he can respond to language signals represented by contrasting spelling patterns. And it is only with an oral language background that a student can respond to language signals represented by contrastive spelling patterns, or, in everyday language, engage in the act of reading. The task of learning to read is thus developed in three stages: (1) rapid and accurate recognition of visual patterns; (2) when these habits are so automatic that the significant identifying features sink below the threshold of conscious attention, response is made to the meanings that are signalled and cumulative comprehension becomes more complete; (3) the reading process becomes so automatic that a person uses reading equally with or even more fully than live language of speech in acquiring and assimilating new experience.

The nonoral vertical reading technique includes the hypothesis that a person can read from 2,000 to 20,000 words per minute if he can learn to make only one fixation per line as the eyes move down the center of the page rather than across it as is done in normal reading. This program stresses training for high speed through (1) prereading preview; (2) passive perception of a page per-count-of-one; (3) chain and circular recall by a process of free association; and, (4) prodigious amount of reading under pressure. Attempts have been made to evaluate this program, but results have been contradictory.

III. Beginning and Operating Programs

Community Relations in Reading

The emphasis on reading within the last decade or so makes it important for the community to support the reading program in the schools. The schools can publicize the reading program through P.T.A. groups and by sending speakers to local service clubs. Where there are reading laboratories, it might prove worthwhile to invite the community in for an evening program where techniques and apparatus are demonstrated.

Some schools may wish to organize evening classes in reading for adults. The reading program can be given additional notice by arranging book fairs where textbooks, trade books, and other reading materials are displayed. Parent workshops in reading have been very successful.

Local reading councils often invite lay people to meetings to hear authorities in the field of reading speak on various areas in reading. Reports of such meetings and from state and national conferences are of interest to readers of local newspapers and keep them informed of trends in reading.

Personnel

The success or failure of the developmental reading program depends upon those individuals who organize and implement it. The parent, the teacher, the administrator, and the reading consultant or supervisor all have an important role in the reading program. In fact, the entire school staff, including the nurse, the psychologist, and the guidance counselor, contribute to a student's success or failure in reading.

The reading program is usually organized by those who see the need for such instruction. It may be organized on a school basis or on a citywide basis. The program may develop because an interested administrator, a faculty committee, or a reading teacher promotes the idea and helps organize the instruction.

The Reading Specialist

Some schools employ supervisors or consultants whose chief responsibilities include providing leadership in developing

adequate programs and improving reading instruction. The reading supervisor or consultant, hereafter referred to as the reading specialist, confers with administrators to implement the programs. Often this person organizes curriculum committees which help formulate a reading guide for the school system. In addition, one main function is to organize and provide leadership for the in-service training and workshop programs.

In general, the reading specialist meets with groups and with individuals for many purposes. Very often, the reading specialist will interpret test data and design programs to meet student needs based upon these and other data. In some cases, group informal inventories will be demonstrated for the purpose of grouping for reading instruction. The reading specialist may want to work with groups in demonstrating techniques in content areas or in developing flexible rates of reading.

There may be instances when the reading specialist will meet with an individual teacher to diagnose and plan remediation for the severely retarded reader, so that the classroom teacher can take over the remedial program when she feels confident to handle it. There may be times when reading programs for individual, bright, superior, or gifted students will be planned with the classroom teacher.

The reading specialist could propose and initiate experimental research and action projects in reading. In this area, this person might be called upon to summarize and present significant research in bulletin form, along with suggestions for reading in professional books and journals.

Standards for the professional training of the reading specialist should be of the highest quality as exemplified in the Indiana certification requirements and the recommendations of the Professional Standards Committee of the International Reading Association.

The Reading Teacher

As local, state, and federal educators become more and more aware of the need for reading instruction at all levels, reading teachers will become more in demand. In any program of reading improvement, the sound professional training of teachers of reading is vital.

Certification for the teacher of reading in the secondary program in Indiana include such minimum requirements as expecting each teacher of reading to hold at least a bachelor's degree and regular teaching certificate, along with at least three years of successful teaching experience. Course work for such certified reading teachers include at least nine (9) graduate credit hours among such course as foundations of reading instruction, diagnosis of reading difficulties, correction of reading difficulties, and practicum in diagnosis and correction of reading difficulties.

In addition to having the necessary graduate credits in reading, the personality of the reading teacher in secondary schools is important. Such teachers should understand the psychology of learning, encourage students to believe in themselves, make students aware of their needs and their progress, and guide students into courses that meet their needs.

The School Staff

The administrative and supervisory staff should understand the purposes and needs of a sound reading program, and should have some graduate preparation in reading, especially a reading foundations course. They should be invited to all in-service meetings on reading and informed of all reading plans and activities. The counseling and guidance staff should be able to recognize reading problems as test scores are analyzed and should be able to make the appropriate reading recommendations.

In-Service Training

An in-service training program in reading should evolve from the needs of the teachers of reading. The function of such a program should be primarily that of upgrading the quality of instruction. Such a program might conceivably include all school staff members who are involved in the teaching of reading.

A comprehensive and practical approach to an in-service program in reading should include in sequential order such major areas as the following:

1. Reading as a psychological and educational process which would serve as a foundation for the topics which follow

2. The directed reading activity or reading lesson as a framework for teaching sequential reading skills
3. The major skills of reading include:
 - a. Vocabulary improvement and derivation
 - b. Comprehension to include literal, critical, and interpretive meanings
 - c. Study and library skills
 - d. Rate of comprehension
4. Demonstrations and practice in skill development
5. Special problems in the content fields
6. The development of a reading manual to serve as a guide to teachers of reading

In-service training programs should also make provisions for the orientation of teachers new to the system.

Where feasible and in cooperation with a college or university, in-service training may encompass formal course work where credit may be earned. Finally, research, experimentation, and the establishment of a professional library should be included in a comprehensive in-service program.

Role of the Parent

Most parents are interested in the school's reading program, in fostering reading in the home, and in helping children with reading problems. Teachers can offer suggestions to parents to stimulate interest in reading in the home. Parents can observe a child's interest in television programs, sports, hobbies, news and feature articles and suggest or ask the librarian to suggest books on these topics. Parents should encourage the regular use of public library facilities. They should make a practice of reading in the home so the children can adopt reading as a family value. In addition, parents should read aloud interesting excerpts from newspapers, magazines, and books; and they should invite, but not pressure, their children to do so as well.

There are a number of practical ways in which parents can be of help to their children. Parents should be urged to make certain that their children have proper rest, exercise, and diet. They should see to it that children are given regular physical examinations, as well as examinations to assess the visual functions of their children's eyes. In addition, parents should be urged to provide a quiet, properly lighted place for reading

at scheduled times daily. They can help by providing dictionaries and encyclopedias that are frequently needed in reading. Finally, parents should take a friendly interest in the materials their child reads and invite discussions regarding the material.

The Reading Committee

Some schools organize standing reading committees to improve instruction in reading and to study ways to meet the particular problems in reading that occur within the school. The membership of such a committee could be composed of grade level and subject area representatives from departments where reading is a crucial factor and at least one member from the administrative staff and one from the counseling staff. The school librarian could provide valuable suggestions for graded reading materials. In addition, the school nurse and the school psychologist should be called upon to act in a consultative capacity.

A reading committee could be of service in many ways. This committee could study reading tests and suggest those which would be appropriate. A valuable service in following up the administration of these tests would be their interpretation to the staff. The group could select materials to meet students needs. In addition, the committee might suggest ways to organize classrooms for reading instruction. Another service such a committee could perform would be to summarize research and new programs in reading.

The committee can use demonstrations to advantage in showing ways to conduct good reading lessons using various reading skills and techniques for administering informal reading inventories.

Exhibits and explanations of instructional materials, trade and teacher-made, prove helpful to the classroom teacher. Such activities could conceivably result in the committee's development of a reading guide.

Summary

Developmental reading programs are organized to help students reinforce and extend their reading skills with increasingly difficult materials. Community support of a program is usually dependent upon keeping the community informed of

the goals of the program and of the progress shown by the participants.

Reading programs are usually instituted through the efforts of an individual or a committee who sees the need. The responsibility for instituting, implementing, and evaluating the program usually falls upon the reading specialist, the teacher, or an interested administrator. However, the efforts of parents and the entire faculty are required to provide a total school effort to improve reading.

IV. Organization of Instruction

Organizing the Individual Program

With the explosion of knowledge and the ever increasing number of students remaining longer in schools, the need for a developmental reading program in the secondary school is no longer questioned. Today the more urgent and frequently asked question is how can the high school mobilize its resources to insure a successful reading program. In a crowded curriculum how can time be found for a reading program? Should reading instruction be incorporated in the English curriculum, made a special laboratory course or integrated into all subject areas? Who should teach the course, and who should take it? What are valid objectives of the high school reading program, proper materials and equipment, and adequate means of evaluation? Each particular school should consider basic problems of organization before launching a reading program in order to enhance chances of its success.² Some of the basic guidelines or principles underlying all successful reading programs are the following:

1. *Establishing Lines of Communication:* Fundamental to the success of the developmental reading program is effective communication with all members of the reading team for the purpose of establishing the need for the program and generating the interest of all team members.⁸ Ideally, the reading team includes the administrative staff, counselors, department heads, the librarian, teachers in all subject fields, students, and parents. The more completely the reading program can be brought into the main current of school and home life, the more effective it is likely to be. Isolated from the general curriculum, unrelated to learning activities in the content fields, and given only token support by faculty members, the developmental reading program can have only slight impact on the quality of education within the school. Some procedures used to communicate the nature of the reading program to staff members and to involve them in planning and executing the program are the following:

- a. Forming a reading committee composed of representatives from all teaching areas, the library, the guidance

personnel, and the administrative staff for the study and implementation of the reading program.

- b. Making the results of standardized reading tests available to all staff members and interpreting results in terms of learning problems in the content fields.
- c. Providing extra time for the reading teacher to confer with students, other teachers, guidance personnel, and parents.
- d. Having the reading teacher or a university reading consultant present demonstration reading lessons to the faculty.
- e. Conducting in-service meetings in which objectives, methods, and materials are presented.
- f. Encouraging all staff members, as well as students, to participate in the evaluation of the reading program.
- g. Maintaining within the school an adequate professional library from which pertinent articles and books are selected for discussion at staff meetings.

2. *Gathering Adequate Data:* Plans must be made for gathering adequate data on the reading needs of the students to be served by the developmental program. This information is necessary for the grouping of students for instruction, determining specific objectives for various groups, selecting appropriate materials and equipment, and motivating students to improve their reading status.

Initial grouping at the secondary level can be accomplished by use of group intelligence tests and by standardized reading tests, which should give separate scores in two reading skills: comprehension and rate. The reading program will be effective to the degree the objectives, methods, and materials are geared to the needs of small groups and individual students. Students who are two or more years below the reading level necessary for full participation in developmental reading tasks of their age should be placed into remedial groups. Further refinement for grouping and individualizing instruction may be achieved through the continuous use of informal inventory techniques.

Certainly, one of the hardest tasks of all may be interesting students in improving their reading. One powerful means of motivation is to reveal to the student his actual potential and his weaknesses in reading. By guiding and showing the stu-

dent his weekly progress, the teacher will sustain interest in reading improvement.

3. *Determining Objectives*: Jan-Tausch states that "regardless of the manner of implementation, reading instruction in a developmental program must be based on planned objectives if content, method, and materials are to prove appropriate and to achieve desired results."¹⁴ These objectives could be divided into two categories: the general, over-all objectives and the specific skills necessary for attaining the ultimate goal of reading instruction: namely, mature readers. Strang, McCullough, and Traxler²⁵ outline in detail the reading skills that should be developed from preschool years through college. Using this reference as a guide, objectives can be clearly defined and the personnel responsible for developing specific skills agreed upon. Although emphasis on particular instructional outcomes will vary from class to class and from school to school, the major skills remain basic in any high school developmental reading program. Bond⁴ and McCullough¹⁶ identify these skills as follows:

- a. Developing meaningful reading vocabulary. Word-study techniques should be those which make possible rapid recognition of words and develop precise and extensive meanings. Structural analysis and use of context clues are prime means to this instructional goal. These procedures are superior to the memorization of word lists and definitions.
- b. Improving comprehension abilities. Instructional goals in this area should include developing abilities needed to read between and beyond the lines of print, to organize systematically, and to evaluate critically.
- c. Specific reading skills in the content fields. Although many reading skills are common to various fields of study, Shores, Tinker, Fay, and Bond have found that reading proficiency is, to a considerable extent, specific to a given subject in which the reading is done. Flexibility of reading in terms of the purpose of the reader, nature of the material, and background of the reader is a highly valuable skill that needs cultivation.
- d. Extending interests and developing tastes and habits of reading for personal and social development. Each student can find his own rewards in reading. The read-

ing program that limits itself to development of skills and fails to make students aware of the pleasures of independent reading and of the possibilities of reading for widening intellectual, emotional, and moral horizons has missed its ultimate goal—a life-time habit of reading.

4. *Selecting Materials:* A variety of materials and equipment must be judiciously selected and made available to meet the specific needs and interests of students in the developmental reading program. (Hess,¹² Plessas,²⁰ Summers,²⁸ and Brueckman⁶ indicate that a combination of procedures and techniques using both reading materials and mechanical devices produces optimum reading improvement.) The many available materials and equipment should not suggest a "buckshot" approach in which materials are used indiscriminately in the hope that reading growth will miraculously occur; rather, they should provide for a multiple small group or a highly individualized approach. The high school boy who has no problem other than a lazy reading habit may find the reading pacer the stimulus he needs. For the student who has a slow rate of comprehension caused by poor word-perception ability, the selection of material for systematic training in word analysis would be appropriate. Thus, in organizing the high school developmental reading program, the person or committee responsible for selecting materials must evaluate materials carefully in terms of specific needs to be served by the course.

Since the study of vocabulary is fundamental to any program, reading program organizers should be aware of the various approaches to vocabulary development before they purchase materials. Bond⁴ and McDonald¹⁷ recommend a direct approach with emphasis on combining structural analysis and context clues. In support of a multi-faceted approach to teaching vocabulary, Dr. Jack Holmes (University of California) identified 13 significant elements or sub-skills directly related to vocabulary development. Using the most important of these elements, Dr. James Brown⁵ (University of Minnesota) and Dr. McDonald¹⁷ (Marquette University) have devised "hybrid" approaches for teaching vocabulary. These "hybrid" approaches have proved promising in high school classes.

Brown expressed his method in a simplified formula, CPD, representing three interrelated steps in learning the meaning

of a new word. The first step, C, requires the student to use all available contextual clues within the sentence and surrounding sentences to unlock the meaning of the word. The second step, P, requires the student to search for meaning clues in the parts of the word, including roots, prefixes, and suffixes. The third step, D, involves using the dictionary to find the meaning appropriate for the particular context. Of course, taken separately each of these steps represents nothing new in vocabulary teaching. However, Brown reported a survey of college students which indicated that 85 percent of the group sampled went directly to the dictionary when they encountered a new word. Thus, many students short-circuit two important mental processes in vocabulary development by going directly to the dictionary.⁵

In choosing materials for use in improving comprehension, McCullough¹⁶ recommends selection of intrinsically interesting materials which provide motivation to read. Bond,⁴ Jewett,¹⁵ and Niles¹⁹ suggest the importance of materials which provide practice in the specific skills to be taught. If, for instance, the material presents no interrelated facts, the teacher cannot use it to teach students how to generalize from interrelated facts. Magazines, paperbacks, textbooks, and newspapers should be available for independent reading in the program. These materials, indeed, are the heart of developmental reading.

5. *Evaluating the Program:* Continuous evaluation of the reading program involving, if possible, the entire teaching staff should be vigorously conducted and modifications made as evidence indicates needed change. Since the successful reading program permeates the entire curriculum, the more broadly based the evaluation, the more reliable will be the data on the effectiveness of the program. Furthermore, the numerous and interacting variables in the reading process and the recognized limitations of standardized tests and even the shortcomings of carefully prepared research design in reading,²² suggest the need for consensus evaluation by the librarian, guidance counselor, subject content teachers, the reading specialist, and the administrative staff.

Pre-testing and post-testing is far from adequate in evaluating the program. Tests cannot measure effort, initiative, changes in attitude and behavior, and the lasting effects (if any) upon reading habits. Some significant questions, best

answered by teachers, are the following: How does the student perform in each of his classes? How has his behavior and attitude changed? What new skills has he attained and how effectively does he use these skills?

6. *Some Typical Organizational Plans:* Studies by Ellis,⁹ Grissom,¹⁰ Strang and Lindquist,²⁴ Hall,¹¹ and Summers²⁷ reveal that a variety of successful practices can be employed in the organization of developmental reading programs in the secondary schools. Reading has been taught as a separate subject in English classes, and, in some cases, in all the subject classes of a school. Within each of the several general organizational plans, procedures differ in accordance with the needs of the student population. Copying a specific sample plan in its totality for another school differing in philosophical orientation is usually not feasible. It is advisable to study many organizational plans to benefit by the successful endeavors of other schools.

Various patterns are used to incorporate developmental reading within the English curriculum. In one plan, all students entering high school are grouped homogeneously for assignment to English classes. Grouping is based upon several factors, including mental ability, standardized reading scores, and cumulative records. Obviously, close coordination must be established between junior high schools and the high school to provide the necessary history of entering students. As early as possible in the school year, English classes are scheduled in the reading center or laboratory for three weeks of intensive instruction. The reading specialist teaches these classes, but the English teacher is always present to assist small groups and individuals in the mastery of skills. Since these classes are already grouped homogeneously in terms of general reading ability, the reading specialist, with the assistance of the English teacher, administers diagnostic tests to determine reading flexibility, functional vocabulary performance, and comprehension abilities. The latter involves recognizing significant facts, summarizing the main idea, drawing inferences or conclusions, and interpreting figurative and idiomatic language. Inventories are also taken of reading interests and tastes. On the basis of these data, objectives for each class and for each student are established.

From a variety of available sources, the reading specialist selects specific material for work on particular skills. Stu-

dents practice these skills at their own reading levels. In addition to practicing skills, the students select materials from a variety of paperbacks and magazines for independent reading during a part of the class period. When the students return to the English classroom, the teacher applies the various skills to the reading of literature, as well as to writing assignments. For instance, the students now discover that the topic sentence in paragraph writing is equivalent to the main idea or conclusion found in the reading process and the support of the topic sentence may be significant facts, examples, comparisons, and contrasts which he has been taught to recognize in reading. Early in the second semester, the English classes take another intensive three-week course in the reading laboratory in which previously learned skills are reinforced and new ones developed. Students are then required to apply the reading skills in the English classes, as well as in other content areas.

In other types of programs organized within the English curriculum, the English teacher uses one or two periods each week to give specific instruction in reading skills. This work is closely integrated with the instruction in literature and writing in the other three or four English periods each week. Such programs usually provide reasonably well for the development of general word attack skills, general comprehension skills, and the skills of reading literature, but tend to neglect skills needed in other subject disciplines. Since the English curriculum is overburdened in most schools and the English teacher is not especially qualified to teach reading skills needed in other content fields, this approach has severe limitations.

A distinctly different approach is to establish developmental reading as a separate program within the school curriculum. Successful programs of this type are taught by well-qualified instructors who have carefully assembled a wide variety of reading materials and selected appropriate pieces of equipment for use in the reading center. Students come to the reading classroom during their study periods. In various schools the length of time students are scheduled for the program ranges from three weeks to the entire school year. Ysleta High School, El Paso, Texas, offers an elective year-long program for students from the freshman through the senior year. Average and above-average students attend six-week courses on a voluntary basis in the Township High School, Evanston, Illinois. In the Evanston program, individual testing of stu-

dents with special problems and occasional individual instruction is also available from the reading specialist.

Occasionally, especially in junior high school, reading instruction is made a part of a core or block curriculum. In this arrangement the teacher or teachers involved in the program develop and apply the reading skills required in the inter-related disciplines. (Summers²⁶)

The ultimate in developmental reading programs is the school-wide attack upon reading problems in all content fields. Artley¹ provides excellent suggestions for implementing such a program. Clark⁷ and Wilson^{29, 30} explain the procedures of an all-school reading approach in Philadelphia. In this type of program, all faculty members participate by teaching the vocabulary and study skills needed in their particular disciplines and by encouraging wide and independent reading in their subject areas. Such programs require strong leadership and a willingness on the part of staff members to become more knowledgeable about the reading process. Collectively, the staff must identify the general and specific goals of the high school reading program, as well as the objectives within each content field.

Much valuable information on organizational patterns of developmental reading is available. *High School Reading Programs*, a recently compiled annotated bibliography by Walter Hill¹³ and published by the International Reading Association, presents sources which describe various patterns of organization for secondary reading programs. It includes references for junior high programs, senior high programs, and general secondary programs. The following are selected references from this bibliography:

Junior High Programs:

Capehart, Bertis and McKeehan, Rollin. "A Junior High School Reading Program Adjusts to Individual Needs," *High School Journal*, 39 (December 1955), 172-177.

Study of a bi-level approach to reading improvements; "Needs Laboratories" for the educationally retarded and "Interest Laboratories" for gifted students; evaluation of results included.

Ellis, U. Berkley. "Developmental Reading in Junior High School," *Journal of Developmental Reading*, 6 (Autumn 1962), 41-49.

Sixth year developmental reading program with emphasis upon adjustment of specific materials to different reading groups; recommendations for initiating a program provided.

McDowell, Kyle K. "The Teaching of Reading in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 38 (December 1954), 36-39.

Junior high reading approach patterned after best of elementary reading practices; basic steps for directing flexible reading activity outlined.

Senior High Programs:

Broening, Angele M. "Development of Taste in Literature in the Senior High School," *The English Journal*, 52 (April 1963), 273-287.

Multiple approach to teaching literature with pertinent consideration given to the development of reading skills; methods and a substantial bibliography presented.

Brueckman, Elizabeth. "Advanced Reading Program—Taft High School," *Journal of Developmental Reading*, 4 (Summer 1961), 228-238.

Differential programs, including methods and materials for freshman, junior, and senior year; emphasis moving from basic comprehension to rate to critical reading.

Glock, Marvin and Millman, Jason. "Evaluation of a Study Skills Program for Above-Average High School Pupils," *Journal of Developmental Reading*, 7 (Summer 1964), 283-289.

Investigation of an instructional program for above-average juniors in acquisition of reading, writing, listening, and study skills; instructional program, research design, and analysis of data described.

Hegman, M. Marian. "Developmental Reading Laboratories," *Journal of Developmental Reading*, 6 (Autumn 1962), 65-67.

Analysis of progress made by students in laboratory program using self-pacing, self-selection with minimal guidance after initial preparatory session with reading consultant.

General Secondary Programs:

Early, Margaret J. "About Successful Reading Programs," *The English Journal*, 46 (October 1957), 395-405.

Summary of experiences of reading specialists and other professionals trying various schemes to improve secondary reading; brief description of promising directions and patterns for compromise programs given.

Grissom, Loren V. "Characteristics of Successful Reading Improvement Programs," *The English Journal*, 50 (October 1961), 461-464, 474.

Results of 1959-1960 study of high school reading programs in Illinois; specific attention given to basic patterns of organization and significant characteristics.

Severson, Eileen E. "A Reading Program for High School Students," *The Reading Teacher*, 16 (November 1962), 103-106.

Initiation and organization of program using division of labor principle among the cooperating content areas for teaching key reading skills.

Strang, Ruth. "Progress in the Teaching of Reading in High School and College," *The Reading Teacher*, 16 (December 1962), 170-177.

General trends in program development and procedures; pertinent bibliography included.

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III. Basic Reading Skills and How to Teach Them

1. FLEXIBILITY AND RATE IN READING

There are many reasons for increasing reading rate. The obvious one is saving time. Students may have more time after lesson preparation for personal activities. Ambitious students can gain time for extra work. The slowest readers may be able at last to get through all their assignments for the day. Aside from the saving of time, readers often comprehend better after they increase their rates.

The reading laboratory is being used more and more in high schools for increasing the reading rate of students. Mechanical aids are used in many laboratories; the most common are pacers, reading films, and the tachistoscope. The pacers and films encourage rhythmic reading at an ever-increasing rate and discourage regressions. The tachistoscope trains the eye to recognize numbers, words, and phrases more quickly. Timed readings, followed by short tests as a check on comprehension, are also a part of the program of the reading laboratory. Practice in skimming is also included in most reading courses.

Although pacers are an incentive and challenge, particularly to high school boys, they are not necessary to the increase of rate. One-minute sprints and longer timed readings in the classroom are effective. A student can move a blank card down the page at an even rate, forcing his eyes to keep ahead of it, with much the same effect as a pacer.

It is impossible to set a definite words-per-minute rate as a goal for a class to read, for students' individual abilities vary widely. Nearly all students double their initial speeds or more during training without loss of comprehension. In some instances, students make notable gains in comprehension.

The reading teacher, while constantly urging increased rates, must also caution the students not to let their eyes work faster than their minds. In effect, a program to increase rate is an exercise in faster thinking, in quicker comprehension. Thus the reading rate must be governed by the comprehension rate. A good reader has many rates depending upon the diffi-

culty of the material, his familiarity with the subject, and his purpose in reading it. This variety of approach is called "flexibility." The reading rate on the same piece of material would vary, for example, if one were reading for pleasure, for class discussion, for a test, or for an oral report. Some writers list three rates:

1. Skimming

This is the fastest rate. Skimming is used to locate such things as a date, name, place, word on the printed page; to get the main idea from an article or chapter; and to preview material before a more careful reading. It is particularly useful for checking materials in newspapers and magazines.

2. Fast Reading

This rapid rate will get the main idea and most of the details. It is useful for reading light fiction, newspaper and magazine articles.

3. Slow or Study Reading

One reads slowly when he needs complete understanding. Many school assignments and materials about which the reader has little pre-knowledge should be read slowly. One uses his slowest rate for any material that requires frequent thought and re-reading, and for appreciation of an author's style and choice of words as in poetry, description, or subtle humor.

The goal of a program, then, is not speed alone but flexibility of rate combined with improved comprehension. A good reader will not dawdle over work-type material. Dawdling permits the mind to wander and necessitates re-reading. A good reader will read everything as fast as the difficulty of the material and the purpose for reading permit.

Some of the books and machines used to increase reading rate are listed here. These are representative selections. No attempt has been made to make the list complete nor are the items listed in any particular order.

Timed Readings

How to Become a Better Reader, Paul Witty, S.R.A.

Better Reading, Books I, II, and III, Elizabeth Simpson, S.R.A.

Design for Good Reading, Levels I and II, Schumacher, Shick, and Schmidt; Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc.
College Reading Manual, Shaw and Townsend, Thomas Y. Crowell Co.

Developmental Reading, Guiler, Raeth, and May. Lippen-cott

Reading Films for Training Eye Movements

Iowa High School Training Films, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

Purdue High School Reading Films, The Audio-Visual Center, West Lafayette, Indiana

Harvard University Reading Films, Harvard University Press, 79 Garden Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts

C-B Phrase-Reading Films, C-B Educational Films, Palo Alto, California

Machines for Training Eye Movements

Tachomatic 500 Projector and Reading Films, Psychotechnics, Inc., 105 West Adams Street, Chicago, Illinois 60603

Controlled Reader, Educational Developmental Laboratories, 75 Prospect Street, Huntington, New York

Craig Reader, Craig Research, Inc., 3410 S. CaCienega Blvd., Los Angeles 16, California

Pacers

Shadowscope, Psychotechnics, Inc., 105 W. Adams St., Chicago, Illinois 60603

Rateometer, Audio Visual Research, Waseca, Minnesota 56093

S. R. A. Reading Accelerator, Science Research Associates, Inc., 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611

Tachistoscopes

Tach-X, Educational Developmental Laboratories, 75 Prospect St., Huntington, New York

Tachist-O-Flasher (for use with strip film projector), Learning Through Seeing, Inc., Sunland, California

Speed-I-O-Scope (attachment for strip film projector), Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago

Percepta-Matic, Stanley Bowman Co., Inc., 12 Cleveland Street, Valhalla, New York

Perceptascope, No-Name Inc., Galesburg, Illinois

2. WORD ATTACK SKILLS

The extensive vocabulary in the various subject areas of the secondary schools is often in striking contrast to the more limited vocabulary used in the basal texts in the elementary grades. The most important tool in meeting this vocabulary load is the ability to figure out the meaning and pronunciation of new words.¹

Of the major skills in reading, word recognition is likely to need the least attention from secondary teachers. But it may be a critical weakness of many students as they encounter more advanced material and of the seriously disabled reader. Students with these difficulties will require concentrated attention to overcome their difficulties. The task of the teacher is to help students become proficient in the word attack skills in which they are weak by equipping them with a variety of techniques.

Before any meaning is derived from a word, students must be able to identify the word. The mature reader has several word unlocking techniques at his command if he fails to recognize a word. The mature reader is proficient in the following word attack skills:

1. Use of context
2. Use of phonetic analysis
3. Use of word structure
4. Use of the dictionary

Use of Context

The context clue provides a basis for an intelligent guess of the meaning of a word from its use in the sentence. If the context doesn't give a clue as to meaning and pronunciation, students must then use phonetic or structural analysis of the words. The use of context clues is one of the most important, if not the most important, means of word recognition. The effective use of context clues is developed through reading purposefully and widely in meaningful material.²

Specific exercises for developing this skill include completion and multiple-choice type sentences.

Use of Phonetic Analysis

The recognition of symbols (single letters and letters in various combinations) and the sounds which they represent is known as phonetic analysis. When a student uses phonics, he

makes use of his knowledge of sounds of letters and letter combinations to pronounce new words.

A high school reading program needs to be concerned with phonics to the extent that every pupil should be able to use phonics as one of the word recognition techniques.³ To check on the students' proficiency in the area, teachers can observe oral and silent reading, use informal tests consisting of word lists and formal tests.

For specific background in phonetic instruction, teachers may consult texts written by specialists in the field of reading and teacher's manuals which accompany basic reading series. Regardless of the phonetic element to be taught, there are four processes to be covered:

1. Auditory discrimination
2. Visual discrimination
3. Word blending or building
4. Contextual application

The sequence to be followed in the teaching of phonetic analysis is from the simple to the complex. For example, initial, medial and final positions would be taught before blends and digraphs.

Use of Word Structure

Structural analysis involves knowledge of root words, prefixes, suffixes, compound words, and syllabication. It is useful to the student to be able to recognize root words within larger words.

Example: *Unlikely*

Two techniques for teaching this skill seem prevalent among teachers:

1. Use a root form to build words emphasizing that prefixes and suffixes alter the meaning but that the root word does not change.
2. Select a word and ask students to name other words which contain the components.

Compound words are those words which are a combination of two known words. Students who do not recognize compounds have not learned to scrutinize words for familiar parts.¹ Students who are blocked by compound words need specific instruction if they are to learn to deal with them.³ The four areas mentioned to teach phonics should be stressed

in a lesson on compound words (auditory, visual, word building, and contextual applications).

Lessons in dividing words into syllables for the purpose of identifying unknown words have proved of help to students who have difficulty with word structure.³ An understanding that each syllable contains a vowel sound gives students a method of breaking words into orderly divisions for the purpose of pronunciation.

Four common principles to aid in the strengthening of syllabication skills are:

1. If two consonants follow the first vowel sound, the word usually is divided between the consonants—*but-ter*.
2. If one consonant follows the first vowel sound, the consonant usually starts the second syllable—*ho-tel*.
3. If the letters *le* follow a consonant, the consonant usually starts the second syllable—*a-ble*.
4. Prefixes and suffixes usually are syllables—*sub-merge*.³

Use of the Dictionary

The dictionary is a valuable aid to students when contextual, phonetic, or structural clues do not unlock the unfamiliar word. Practice and review of dictionary skills are beneficial.

General Materials

Developmental reading lessons introduce difficult or unfamiliar words as part of building readiness for reading. Students who fail to recognize many words readily will profit from additional instruction in developing an adequate stock of sight words.³ Sight vocabulary will increase as students become proficient in using the above-mentioned word attack skills. See the appendix for more detailed suggestions for sequential development of word attack skills.

The proficient reader will use several techniques to identify a new word. He may look for clues in the context, apply his phonetic skills, use structural analysis or turn to a dictionary. Each of these skills should be taught beginning at a simple level and proceeding to more complex levels.

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1. Bamman, H. A. *Reading Instructions in the Secondary School*. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1961.
2. Bond, G. L. and Eva Wagner. *Teaching the Child to Read*, New York: Macmillan Company, 1960.

3. Karlin, Robert. *Teaching Reading in the High School*, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1961.
4. Spache, George D. *Toward Better Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963.

Audio-Visual Aids

Filmstrips for the Pupil

Adventures in Words. Four color filmstrips, 30 frames each on word structures and derivation. (Junior and Senior High School) Filmstrip House.

Goals in Spelling. Six color strips emphasizing the use of vowels, consonants, syllabication. (Middle and Upper Grades) Webster Publishing Company.

Prefix and Suffix Mastery. Two strips dealing with common affixes and their meanings. (Junior and Senior High School) Learning through seeing.

Tape for the Teacher

A Sensible Approach to Word Recognition, by Guy L. Bond. 15 minutes. Tape Recording Service.

3. COMPREHENSION

Comprehension—or understanding—is the goal of reading; it is comprehension that justifies learning to read. Achieving understanding creates a transition, a bridge, from the familiar to the unfamiliar. Such a transition is different with each reader; it is different, however, not in kind but in degree since each reader has a different store of knowledge and a different capacity for comprehending. Nevertheless, one may generalize that comprehension is a passage from the familiar to the unfamiliar that makes use of both kinds of knowledge. The “raw materials” in every act of comprehension are two: the text before the reader and the “equipment”—physical, psychological, and intellectual—that the reader brings to his attempt to comprehend that text.

Levels of Comprehension

Everyone changes his purposes in reading from time to time. It is not desirable to read every text in the same way. At times only partial comprehension is needed for the reader's purpose.

One may read very rapidly to gain a general impression of the material. Certain authorities say that, when one reads in this sweeping, exploratory way, he is *skimming* and that, when one reads in the same way but is consciously looking for something, he is *scanning*. On other occasions comprehension is not *partial* as it is in skimming and scanning but

full; that is, one reads more carefully in order that he may get all of the *literal* sense of the text without missing any part. One may wish to read in this way so that later he may have complete or nearly complete *recall* of the material. A third level of comprehension is still more thorough; this is comprehension on the level of close study. Analytical or critical reading subjects the text to a very close, careful examination, usually with some evaluative purpose in mind. Such reading is similar to *creative* reading, the kind of comprehension in which the reader becomes a participant in the presumed mood and intent of the writer, a sharer of the text as a kind of maker himself. Well-liked poetry is read mostly in this way; often when a good novel creates this effect, one says that he has "become lost in it."

Language Forms and Comprehension

To comprehend a text, one must know the language it is written in. But this is much more than simply knowing the meanings of the individual words. One must understand the meanings of words as they are arranged in sentence patterns; and these differ from language to language and from time to time as literary taste changes (compare the style of Carlyle or Ruskin with that of Stephen Crane or Hemingway). One must also comprehend the meanings of paragraph arrangements—paragraphs as developments, as contrasts, as transitions, as parts of lists, as introductions or conclusions, as summaries. One must also know the meanings of whole compositions as forms or organizations; a text may be an analysis, a contrast, a list, an inductive illustration, an historical account, and so on. These larger organizations have meanings in themselves as forms; part of the meaning of a text comes from the meaning of its form, a meaning which the reader must understand.

Emphasis and Climax

A skilled writer will use his words and sentences for rhetorical effects, effects which impress the reader in some non-factual way. Two of the most important of these rhetorical effects are emphasis and climax. The reader must be sensitive to these devices, for they are part of the text's meaning. Repeated, carefully explained terms and elaborately constructed sentences may be used by the writer to point to the most

important aspects of his work. Certainly the reader must be in the habit of looking for *major facts and ideas*, and these devices are meant to help him do so. The discovery of the major facts and ideas in an essay or other work is essential to its understanding at any level. At the critical level of comprehension, it is essential to see how these major elements are related to the minor elements thus discover the basic structure of the text.

Flexibility and Comprehension

The best-trained, most efficient reader is the reader who chooses a kind of reading most appropriate to the text at hand and to his particular purpose. His approach is always *flexible* in these ways. He will read a Western novel at an easy, rapid rate and for pleasure. He will read a sonnet by Shakespeare, however, at a much slower rate and with far more care, even if he is reading it purely for pleasure. The text here is different both in idea and in language; it requires reading at a literal level of comprehension at least and very likely at a critical or even a creative level. Suppose he must read the sonnet for classroom discussion the next morning. He must read on a critical level where every aspect of the sonnet is to be considered—including the contribution made by Shakespeare's arrangement of lines and rhymes.

Comprehension and Speed

Nearly every course in developmental reading emphasizes both comprehension and speed. Of the two, however, increase in speed or rate is much the easier for students to attain. Such an increase usually brings with it an increase of from five to seven percent in comprehension. A strictly parallel increase in comprehension, however, is difficult to attain. It is improvement in the rate of *comprehension* that the reader wants; everything he may do in practice is merely an aid to this.

The student in the reading laboratory ought to begin by trying to get rid of his bad reading habits (reading word by word, vocalizing, making regressions, etc.) and by trying to increase his speed. Success in these efforts will come at different times to different students; some may make significant "breakthroughs" after only three weeks of practice but others may make them only after many weeks of patient work. A student who has progressed to this point should then

change his emphasis from speed to comprehension; after he thinks he is again *fully* comprehending, he may return to an emphasis upon speed. He should be encouraged to experiment from time to time; many students are mistakenly convinced that they can read with successful comprehension *only* at low rates.

In addition to eye movement other factors in improving the reader's rate of comprehension are (1) knowledge of the text's area, including the vocabulary used, from reading or experience, or both; (2) ability to distinguish key or principle terms and their contextual meanings; (3) understanding of the basic structure of the text; (4) ability to follow the continuity of thought throughout the text. These are related to the ability to understand the significance of both style and organization of the text and to the reader's mastery of the skills that make up the reading process.

Suggestions for Improvement in Comprehension

The following suggestions to the student are meant as aids in a course in reading and also as suggestions for lifetime use; the development of comprehension is a continuously growing process.

1. Don't give up—don't even think of it.
2. Keep adding to your vocabulary—learn words from the dictionary, from books, from vacation trips, from your jobs, and from conversations.
3. Learn grammar if you don't know it—for example, learn how the forms of phrases and clauses contribute to meaning and emphasis in sentences.
4. Learn the use of punctuation—and how it contributes to meaning.
5. Become sensitive to the use of transitional words and phrases and other "signposts" placed to aid the reader; for example, distinguish between the meanings of "and" and "but," "moreover," and "consequently."
6. Learn to determine the meanings of key terms and phrases from the context—i.e., the way the thought is directed or developed.
7. Know your own attitudes and inclinations and compare these with what seem to you to be the author's attitudes, inclinations, and purpose.

8. Keep your approach flexible. *Whatever works best for you and your text is the best approach.*
9. If you are reading your own book, read with a pencil in your hand and mark important words or passages, place questions in the margin, underline unfamiliar words—develop your own scheme.

The Critical Reader and the Creative Reader

The critical reader is the reader who comprehends the text in every factual aspect, who examines it closely with an analytical mind. The creative reader is one who is sympathetic to and who tends to expand the writer's work as seen in the text; such a reader frequently brings to his reading experience much personal experience and knowledge of his own that is highly relevant to the actual reading. This is not to say that creative reading is always an experience better or more difficult in kind than critical reading unless one believes that "aesthetic" experience is superior to "scientific." It is more accurate to say that the two experiences are different in kind and that there are some advantages in recognizing the difference.

4. ENRICHMENT OF VOCABULARY

The ability to use a wide variety of words well is one mark of an educated person. The teacher who helps students develop an avid interest in words and a desire for expansion of vocabulary makes a definite contribution toward the success of students, both in school and in later life. High school students need practice in applying skills already learned in attacking more difficult words at more mature levels.

The speaking vocabularies of junior and senior high school students often contain few of the types of specific words necessary to the understanding and enjoyment of written ideas. They must be helped to see that, in reading, words must replace such aids to understanding as facial expression and hand movements.

Wide variation in the ability of students to recognize and understand words may result from differences in cultural background. Diagnostic testing to determine individual needs, followed by teaching, practice, and post testing is necessary. Since the number of new words and concepts increases so

rapidly in the complex modern world, students need effective techniques for learning unknown words.

One of the best methods for increasing vocabulary is through enlarging areas of experience. Wide reading in many fields results in increased vocabulary if students have been taught techniques such as getting meanings from context clues and using dictionaries.

Each teacher should assume the responsibility for developing the vocabulary skills in his own subject. Teachers of reading and English should assume special responsibility for teaching basic skills at the different levels needed by the students in their classes regardless of the grade level of the class. This will include skills of vocabulary development in two main tracts:

- a. Skills in word identification through use of phonetic analysis, structural analysis of roots, prefixes and suffixes, and syllabication and stress.
- b. Development of usable, meaningful vocabularies through use of context clues and dictionary skills.

Teachers of All Subjects Should be Alert to the Possibility That Poor Comprehension May be Due to a Meager Vocabulary

In all subject areas the major aspects of vocabulary study must be utilized. These include analysis of elements, etymology, word source, semantic change, and definition. It should also be recognized that there are at least three distinct levels to the development of word meanings, namely, (1) recognition of the word in print, (2) knowledge of the literal meaning, and (3) awareness of the extensions of meaning (connotations).

There is no magic wand which can be waved to enlarge vocabulary. As in all learning, the psychological principles of association, practice, motivation, incentives and transfer must be observed. Teachers in all areas of study can aid students to improve vocabularies by:

1. Administering short easily-checked pretests for the class, followed by teaching and practice with the entire class, small groups, or individuals, as needed.
2. Presenting organized short drills throughout a semester, practicing the skills of acquiring vocabulary to

help make them automatic. The difficulty of the tests should be increased gradually.

3. Administering short, easy-to-check pronunciation tests by giving students lists of words, some of which are marked diacritically and some of which are not. The teacher may pronounce each word several ways and have students indicate the correct pronunciation.
4. Using the *Indiana Curriculum Guide in Remedial Reading* for suggestions for helping students who have great difficulty.
5. Giving practice in combining methods of attacking words (context clues, checking in dictionary, root clues, etc.).
6. Showing his own interest in vocabulary by using new words frequently in making assignments and in class discussions.
7. Having oral reading in small groups, in pairs, individually with the tape recorder, or in the large group to help pupils enjoy the beauty of language, to encourage accurate pronunciation, and to diagnose reading difficulties.
8. Encouraging students to get the habit of using all vocabulary helps in the books they use.
9. Studying visual aids, such as pictures with captions and labels on maps and charts.
10. Determining the exact type of vocabulary difficulty by checking to see whether the student knows the meaning of a word after he can identify and pronounce it.
11. Starting with words like telephone, thermometer, automobile, and having students make up words for new ideas from known roots. ("Nonaqua" planet — for a planet without water.) Making up words which suggest the meaning by the sound of the word.
12. Using foreign words or made-up words in sentences or paragraphs for practice in getting the meaning from the context; using known roots and prefixes as clues; using some words in which a clue to meaning is given in the sound of the word.
13. Developing curiosity about and interest in words through etymology and through reading Old English

and Middle English excerpts to show how language changes.

14. Discussing words a person living forty years ago would not have known to show how words are added to a language.
15. Presenting new meanings for known words; having students look up words such as *run* or *jack* in the dictionary to see the wide variety of meanings a word may have.
16. Bringing a sharp focus on words that are only partially understood.
17. Pointing out the many devices the author may use to help with vocabulary, such as
 - a. Setting off the word by italics, quotation marks, or boldface type.
 - b. Defining or briefly explaining the word in parenthesis.
 - c. Explaining by inserting a clause or phrase in the sentence.
 - d. Using a substitute phrase to indicate the meaning, as "tornado or destructive wind in funnel-shaped cloud."
 - e. Explaining the meaning with a pictorial illustration.
18. Taking advantage of current events to learn new words and phrases (a space shot, a musical program, a TV program).
19. Using magazines, newspapers, and books on many subjects to build a background of many words.
20. Making paragraphs or sentences with wrong words in them to give students practice in identifying the disruptive element when the passage doesn't make sense.
21. Having students compare their vocabulary with lists such as Thorndike-Lorge to determine whether they know words students of their ages and grades are expected to know.
22. Varying methods of presenting vocabulary study in order to keep practice interesting.
23. Using a variety of materials of appropriate difficulty for age and experience of the students.

24. Selecting passages from the writings of good humorists and providing practice in getting humorous connotations. (Many children fail to enjoy subtle humor because of limited understanding of words.)
25. Introducing unfamiliar and difficult words used in the texts before asking the students to read the assignment.

In studies comparing the value of focusing instruction on vocabulary development with that of depending upon general reading efficiency to improve vocabulary skills, researchers have reached the following conclusions:

1. Pupils need help in acquiring word meanings in much of the reading material assigned to them, largely because they lack specific experiences necessary to attach clear meanings to new words.
2. Pupils are unconscious of their limitations and without teacher direction fail to exert effort to overcome them.
3. The direct method of vocabulary development is more effective in enriching and clarifying meanings than the indirect method. By "direct method" is meant the guided study of selected words and their meanings with frequent reviews to help retention. By "indirect method" is meant the student's unguided acquisition of new words and meanings.

Instructional Materials

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KEY TO 100,000 WORDS¹

Prefix	Other Spellings	Meaning	Master Words	Root	Other Spellings	Meaning
1. DE-		Down or Away	Detain	Tain	Ten, Tin	To have or hold
2. INTER-		Between	Intermittent	Mitt	Miss, Mis, Mit	To send
3. PRE-		Before	Precept	Cept	Cap, Capt, Ceive, Ceit, Cip	To take or seize
4. OB-	Oc- Of- Op-	To, Toward, Against	Offer	Fer	Lat, Lay	To bear or carry
5. IN-	Il- Im- Ir-	Into	Insist	Sist	Sta	To stand, endure, or persist
6. MONO-		One or Alone	Monograph	Graph		To write
7. EPI-		Over, Upon or Beside	Epilogue	Log	Ology	Speech or Science
8. AD-	A- Ac- Ag- Al- An- Ap- Ar- As- At-	To or Toward	Aspect	Spect	Spec, Spi, Spy	To look
9. UN- COM-	Co- Col- Con- Cor-	Not With or Together	Uncomplicated	Plic	Play, Plex, Ply	To fold, bend, twist or interweave
10. NON- EX-	E- Ef-	Not Out or Formerly	Nonextending	Tend	Tens, Tent	To stretch
11. RE- PRO-		Back or Again Forward or In Favor Of	Reproduction	Duct	Duc, Duit, Duk	To lead, make, shape or fashion
12. IN- DIS-	Il- Im- Ir- Di- Dif-	Not Apart From	Indisposed	Pos	Pound, Pan, Post	To put or place
13. OVER- SUB-	Suc- Suf- Sug- Sup- Sur- Sus-	Above Under	Oversufficient	Fic	Fac, Fact, Fash, Feat	To make or do
14. MIS- TRANS-	Tra- Tram-	Wrongly, Wrong Across, Beyond	Mistranscribe	Scribe	Scrip, Scriv	To write

5. STUDY SKILLS

The concept of study skills as one of the major reading skills is fairly recent in reading circles, according to Smith.⁴ She feels that there has been a reluctance to separate study skills from other reading skills. Bamman, Hogan, and Greene¹ appear to support this conclusion. They think with Smith, however, that the concept of study skills has special applicability. Smith defines them as "those skills that form an integral part of the reading process, but that are used especially when application of the content is desired. Thus conceived, study skills in reading may be broadly defined as skills used when there is intention to *do something with* the content read."

Bramman et al.¹ (p. 122) state that the student who enters the junior or senior high school is faced with problems of a different nature than those with which he was confronted in elementary school. Both wider reading in specific content areas and more intensive study are required; success in the secondary school requires that the student develop independence in his study habits. Hence, teachers of reading as well as teachers in the content areas need to teach procedures in study skills if students are to become independent and selective in study habits.

While reading authorities differ in what they consider the study skills to be, most of them include some of the skills in the following discussion. Of primary importance is a quiet, properly lighted place to study. Such a place should be equipped beforehand with all the equipment the student will need. He should see to it that he has at his disposal materials like dictionaries, reference books, pencils, paper, and all other necessities for study.

Students should be urged to arrange daily and weekly study schedules for each subject area in advance. The schedule should be planned so that the most difficult subject comes first. Study breaks should also be included in the schedule. These schedules should be written out, and after the schedules have been in effect for awhile, changes can be made as the need arises. Students should be urged to adhere to these schedules so as to become habituated to specific study periods.

The study skills that need to be systematically taught are these: (1) organization of materials for reading and for

study; (2) interpretation of graphic and tabular materials; (3) preparation for and the execution of tests; and (4) location of materials.

Organization of Materials for Reading and for Study

Students need to be impressed with the importance of being versatile in reading. They must be taught that some materials should be skimmed to locate specific information, dates, and names. Other materials will need to be read rapidly in order to gain the sense of unity, the general impression, or the main idea. Material that is selected for personal enjoyment should be read rapidly or slowly, depending on the reader's preoccupation with it. Some passages and/or verses will be savored for their beauty and their imagery and for the ideas presented therein. Those materials that must be interpreted from an analytic point of view or those that must be selected to serve a specific function may need to be read slowly as the reader studies them. Directions, mathematic problems, and sequential steps in experiments need to be read slowly, also. It is highly important that students be taught in carefully structured situations to vary their reading rate in relation to their purposes and the content of the reading materials.

One excellent method for organizing materials for reading and for studying them is the SQ3R approach. In this approach the student is taught first to survey the material to be read. This survey requires that the student read the title, sub-title, graphs, and tabular material and that he study all maps and pictures in advance. Through this procedure, he gains an idea of what it is that he can expect to find in the reading matter. The student gains some background of information for reading as well as a "set" and anticipation of the materials at hand.

The next phase of SQ3R deals with questions, and it is here that the student asks himself what it is that he wishes to discover from his reading. Students should be taught to read any questions at the chapter ends to help them to anticipate the information presented in the text. This prereading of questions gives the student a good deal of information regarding the reading material and adds to his background of information. The question phase of this approach calls upon the student to translate all subtitles into questions so that he

can anticipate main ideas as they are presented under the various topics discussed during the reading.

The three R's of the SQ3R method call upon the students to read, recite, and review. During the first *R* the student reads to answer all the questions he has set up for himself, thus he is motivated to read. At the same time, he is well-prepared for what will confront him as he reads. The second *R* refers to the student's reciting or restating what he has learned. Finally, the SQ3R approach asks the student to review the main ideas. This review immediately after reading helps the student to retain what he has read.

Frequently, students will need to be taught where to locate main ideas in paragraphs. Teachers should select paragraphs that have main ideas at the beginnings, midpoints, and ends of paragraphs, and they should require that the students find them and tell where the main ideas are located in these paragraphs. Students need to be taught that some paragraphs develop the main idea to some degree at the beginning of a paragraph, then follow it with the subordinate ideas, and finally complete the paragraph with the full development of the main idea. Students need to be cautioned, as well, that some paragraphs do not contain a main idea at all. A good deal of suitable practice in locating main ideas should be planned if there is a need for it.

Teachers must teach students what summaries are and how to summarize properly. Summaries are the gathering together of the main ideas into a few concise statements. Information not originally contained in the body of the reading matter should be omitted from the summary. Practice in developing summaries must be allowed where necessary. To reinforce the skill of summarizing, students can be required to summarize several main ideas on a given topic. Oral and written summaries are reviews that aid in recall and memory work.

Frequently, students are required to memorize reading material for oral presentation or for examinations. Some youngsters do not have a good method of attack in memorizing materials, so teachers need to teach this skill. One method of memorizing materials calls upon the student to read the material to be committed to memory several times to perceive the wholeness of it, and also to help in the thorough

understanding of it. This reading and rereading should be accompanied by a study of the main ideas and the way they are related to one another. When a student understands the material to be memorized, the memorization is facilitated. At this point the material should be divided into smaller parts, each of which is memorized separately, until all of it is committed to memory. Overlearning is an essential feature of memorization. It is better to overlearn material to be memorized than to be somewhat insecure regarding it.

Outlining and note-taking are subskills implicit in organizing materials for reading and for study. At the secondary level, it is to be hoped that the students will have had some instruction in preparing outlines. Regardless of what the student knows about outlining, the teacher should start at the point where the student is and develop proper outline form. In teaching this skill, the teacher should start with requiring students to outline simple paragraphs, gradually progressing to longer and more complex materials. Practice materials for outlining may come from random paragraphs, textbooks, lectures, and oral reports. The students should be taught how to set down main ideas as headings and sub-headings, followed by the proper placement of subordinate ideas and/or supporting details.

Specific practice can be given in which main ideas are supplied and the students are required to supply appropriate subordinate ideas and/or supporting details. This procedure can profitably be reversed. In addition, practice can be provided in preparing topic, sentence, and modified outlines. Teachers should require students to outline some assigned reading materials as guides for study. Students need to be cautioned, as well, that not all reading materials lend themselves equally well to outlining.

Taking notes cannot be left to chance because it cannot be assumed that students know how to take good notes. Often they enter college totally unprepared to handle this skill. Teachers should schedule situations where students will have frequent opportunities to take notes after they have been taught how to do this; good note-taking is an art and requires much practice. Teaching students to reorganize main and subordinate ideas heard in lecture materials, tapes, and recordings can be utilized to advantage here; for when tapes and recordings are replayed, students have opportunities to

discriminate relevant from irrelevant materials. Students must be taught that appropriate conjunctions are required when setting down main and subordinate ideas so that the notes make sense when they are read. Teachers should remind students that notes should be read as soon as possible after they have been written to aid in the retention of the materials. In addition, students must be reminded to keep notes on various subjects in separate notebooks or sections of notebooks.

Interpretation of Graphic and Tabular Materials

The interpretation of graphs, charts, tables, and maps needs to be taught. Teachers often observe students skipping over these visual aids to learning because they do not know how to interpret them.

Graphs, charts, tables, and maps represent data and information in highly organized, comprehensive, and sometimes pictorial forms. Students need to know that these aids generally clarify and supplement contextual materials; therefore, they should be studied carefully. Shankman and Kranyik³ suggest that graphs, in particular, require the following skills: ability to distill information regarding the subject, ability to identify the symbols used, ability to secure information from graphic material, ability to identify kinds of information given, ability to identify various trends on graphs.

Students must have a good deal of practice with graphic materials of all kinds to become facile with the skills identified above. These skills should be systematically taught and reinforced frequently with graphic materials of progressively more difficult levels.

For instance, students need frequent practice in interpreting maps of different kinds. They must be shown how the proper interpretation of a map can add to the knowledge of the subject under consideration. Shankman and Kranyik³ (p. 29), believe that two map skills are needed for the successful use of maps. They state that, among other things, knowledge of keys, symbols, terms, and colors can be considered as the reading skills necessary to the effective use of maps. "Meaning, however, comes through interpretation." Interpretation, they think, is the second of the two skills.

Students must become familiar with rainfall, population, topographical, climate, soil, and other kinds of maps. Many inferential questions can be devised by members of each class

to stimulate an interest and a facility in reading maps. Such questions as the following might be appropriate:

- a. Why might sheep be raised in a particular section?
- b. What makes you think that fishing might be an industry in another?
- c. Why do you suppose there could be electric power plants in these foothills?
- d. Why might irrigation be necessary in this particular region?
- e. What makes you think that there are very few industries here?
- f. What would suggest that transportation might be a problem here?
- g. What would suggest that the people who live here might have sloping roofs on their buildings?

A good deal of interpretative thinking must go into the framing of such questions; consequently, students learn a good deal by themselves in devising questions of this nature.

Preparation for and the Execution of Tests

This study skill is not inherently known by students. It is not simply a matter of knowing or not knowing the answers on tests. Students should know that there is a proper approach to preparing for taking tests. Students should know that last-minute cramming is not the most effective preparation for taking a test. Teachers must advise students far in advance of tests to prepare by daily review of notes and outlines and mental or written summaries. Several days preceding the test is time enough for intensive study broken by periods for recreation, rest, or an entirely different kind of activity.

Because of the enormous pressures on high school students today, teachers should suggest to them that they study in teams. Team study makes a difficult activity more pleasant. Students benefit from what the others in the team can add to the material to be covered. In addition to the social benefits of team study, this can constitute a saving of time as students learn from one another.

Instruction in the taking of tests should emphasize the necessity of reading the test items slowly and carefully to see what is required. Teachers should urge students to mark those test items that they can do without difficulty, skipping

those that are more burdensome for later. This applies to writing essay tests, also. On multiple choice and true and false items, teachers should remind students to be cautious about erasing original responses, as these first impressions are often correct.

Bamman *et al.*,¹ suggest that students consider carefully such qualifying terms as "always," "never," and "only." The writers feel that such qualifiers as "the least acceptable" or "the most acceptable" in the matter of multiple choice tests need to be noted carefully, too.

During an essay test, students should know that quick notes and handy outlines of their responses are extremely helpful. Above all, teachers should urge students to allot specific time periods for responses to each part of the test, so that panic will not ensue toward the end of a test in which the student did not wisely time his responses.

Location of Materials

This study skill appears to be subdivided into use of information in books, library skills, and research skills. The use of information in books concerns itself with the proper use of information outside of that given in the text proper. Such things as the table of contents, index, biographical notes, glossary, footnotes, title page, and illustrations are all valuable sources of information. Students should have practice in the use of these sources of information.

The study of the table of contents helps the reader understand the organization of the material. It also aids him in anticipating the kinds of information he will find. Tables of contents that are further divided into units are even more helpful because they help the student to see how the various chapters or stories lend themselves to broad areas of interest. Teachers should make students aware of the table of contents as a means of "previewing" and of understanding the organization of the book.

Students must have regular practice in the use of the index. Teachers should schedule lessons that provide practice in locating information in an index from specific subjects. This should be preceded by a discussion of the way index terms are arranged and why individual items are generally broad classifications.

Biographical notes, glossaries, footnotes, reference lists, and illustrations supplement and help to clarify the text. Teachers should help students to use these aids. Biographical sketches frequently stimulate students' curiosity regarding the selection under consideration. These sketches add to the student's background information and frequently provide a historical setting for the material to be read.

Glossaries and footnotes clarify vocabulary and cryptic passages. Glossaries should be referred to by students for help in understanding the terms and concepts in the text. Foreign words are often explained in a glossary. Where glossaries are present, teachers should introduce students to them and see that the students use them.

Lists of references are helpful in adding to one's information in certain areas. Teachers should arrange with the local librarian or the school librarian to place as many as possible of the listed references on reserve for use by the students.

Illustrations and photographs often add to one's background of experience. Illustrations and photographs clarify concepts and add to one's information, as well as adding interest.

Library skills concern the location and the use of books, monographs, periodicals, special references (such as *Psychological Abstracts* and *Education Index*) and pamphlets and periodicals. Only as the need for library skills grows is the student likely to develop independence in these skills. For this reason, it would seem that any instruction in library skills should be functional. Problems under discussion in content areas give rise to many opportunities for research. These opportunities should be seized upon by the teacher as a functional means of teaching library skills. As students are engaged in library research, the teacher can guide them. He can take aside a group that needs special instruction in how to locate biographies or how to use the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, or even give instruction in what sources would be appropriate for a particular topic.

In doing research students should be urged to limit their topics. After carefully choosing and limiting a topic, a student should ask himself five or six main questions about it. All references which seem to answer these questions could be retained; those which do not answer the questions are probably not relevant and should be discarded. After enough

appropriate references are located, the business of writing is simpler since the information is already organized under five or six main points.

Skimming is an essential skill for locating relevant material. Practice in developing this skill should be planned by the teacher. Hypothetical topics could be planned for research practice. The students should have at hand in the classroom a number of references to skim for relevant material.

Psychological Aspects

It is frequently helpful to students to have some knowledge of the psychological aspects of learning. Such knowledge, even if fragmentary and superficial, is a guard against unnecessary discouragement and unhappiness. Knowledge of the generalized experience of other students and an objective view of himself as a learner are distinct aids to students at every level.

Two of the more important psychological principles for students to know are the most efficient means of memorizing—often called “spaced learning”—and the involuntary pause in development usually known as “the plateau of learning.” The first of these implies the repetition of the material to be memorized at relatively wide intervals of time; intervals of from one day to three days between work at memorization are usually effective. The second is a phenomenon typical of most learning processes that require extended periods of practice—developmental reading is of course one such process. The student experiencing such an involuntary phase during which he seems to make no progress whatever is simply assimilating more completely what he has taken in up to that time. He should realize that this is an expected levelling-off or “plateau” period and, refusing to be discouraged, continue his efforts. In a relatively short time, he will again increase in skill.

Understanding such psychological principles as these is very important for student morale generally and in particular for the preservation of student motivation.

Summary

Students need to schedule study periods and follow through on that schedule. Among the important study skills are organizing materials for reading and for study, interpreting graphic

and tabular material, preparation for taking tests, and locating materials.

Teachers must not assume that students already possess these skills. Situations should be devised so that these skills can be taught in a systematic manner. Whenever possible, these skills should be taught functionally.

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6. LISTENING AND READING

Listening is the most used of the language arts and exerts a tremendous influence in life today. With the extended use of radio and television, listening is consuming an increasing share of the student's day. Hence, there is an obvious need for the school to help students develop their listening ability. Moreover, it is desirable that the learning gained from out-of-school listening should be used in the school program whenever appropriate.

Nature of the Listening Process

Listening goes beyond the physiology of hearing and demands some conscious interaction between the received stimuli and the organism doing the receiving. In other words, the listener must in some manner respond to what he hears.¹

The processes involved in listening may be further analyzed through a brief study of the types of listening in which students commonly engage. Passive listening is prevalent today as many boys and girls study while listening to the radio. Frequently, passive listening is a deliberate tuning out of what is heard with just enough consciousness of speech or sound to bring the student back to attention when a favorite character is heard. Listening to background music while reading, differs markedly from listening to a lecture which proposes various plans of action. The process of attending to new or original

solutions of problems presented through the spoken word may be termed creative listening. It is the act of entering imaginatively into the experience, the setting, and the feeling of the characters in a story which is being told or read orally. Attentive listening is needed in situations demanding accuracy of comprehension such as directions, announcements, and introductions. Responsive listening occurs in conversation or discussion. Analytical listening takes place when the listener weighs a lecture or oral discourse against his personal experiences and against the attempts of the speaker to sway his opinion by the device of propaganda. Junior and senior high school students should master this kind of listening in order to develop into intelligent citizens of our democracy.

Listening, then, is a language activity usually imbedded in a social situation and involving the total personality. The level of listening on which a student operates is the product of his general maturity, his past experiences in listening, his purposes for listening, and the nature of the listening situation.

Concomitancy of Reading and Listening

Listening and reading involve many of the same mental processes. Basically, they differ in the stimulus which results in thought processes. Listening is the reaction to sound stimuli; reading is the response to printed symbols. In both listening and reading, words are identified and associated with past experience.

Like the process of reading, the art of listening involves many different abilities. The development of each of these abilities determines the effectiveness of a student's total listening ability. Some of the abilities involved in listening are:

- Perceiving the different sounds of our language
- Using auditory memory to retain sound sequence
- Associating meaning with spoken words
- Recognizing phrasing, cadence, inflection and emphasis
- Grasping clues to meaning from syntax
- Forming sensory images from oral descriptions
- Sensing emotions and moods through words and manner of delivery
- Following a speaker's sequence of ideas and organization
- Inferring meanings and drawing conclusions
- Analyzing the organization of an oral message

Evaluating ideas and making judgments as to intent and method of presentation.

Research shows some interesting relationships between reading and listening. Russell² studied 690 students in the intermediate grades and junior high school to determine the relative effectiveness of their listening and reading. He drew the following conclusion:

1. Fifth-grade students learn more from having material read to them than by reading it themselves.
2. For seventh-grade students, the relative effectiveness of the two methods is nearly equal.
3. In the ninth grade learning by reading has a slight advantage.

Bond and Tinker³ have indicated the following:

1. In the lower grades, listening comprehension is equal to or better than reading comprehension. This holds true also for pupils of low ability.
2. However, when pupils have become more skilled in reading, reading comprehension is equal or superior to listening comprehension. The same trend is evident for pupils of relatively high academic ability.

In studying the concomitancy of reading and listening, Caffrey⁴ found:

1. When auding ability is low, reading ability tends more often to be low.
2. When auding ability is high, reading ability is not predictable.
3. When reading ability is low, auding ability is not predictable.
4. When reading ability is high, auding ability is to a very small extent predictable; likely to be high.

Since most schools do not presently provide systematic instruction in listening as they do in reading, proficiency in listening does not keep pace with reading, and eventually reading ability leaves listening ability behind. This suggests the need for a developmental program in listening that will parallel reading instruction in order that these two abilities continue to reinforce each other.

Listening Must Be Developed

Most educators acknowledge the important role that listening plays in learning. Extensive tests by Ralph C. Nichols at the University of Minnesota⁵ show that the average person remembers only half of what he hears immediately after listening to someone talk; two months later, he remembers only 25%. Obviously most people use only a small portion of their listening ability. Nichols cites improvement of 25% to 49% in students as a result of twelve weeks of training in listening. Sister Mary Kevin Hollow,⁶ in a study involving fifth graders, found appreciable improvement in listening through a planned program of instruction.

The assumption that listening develops by chance seems false. Without instruction in this important communication skill, listening habits appear to grow worse with increasing age. Ear specialists tell us that nearly half of people's failure to hear may be due to inattention.⁷

The National Council of Teachers of English voiced its opinion on the teaching of listening thus: "Listening habits must be taught, not left to chance. Just as we see need for continuous instruction in reading through our grades, including high school, so we recognize that the type of critical listening we desire in our pupils must be developed by carefully graded training from very simple exercises. It will not be achieved by a few lectures on listening or listen-to-conversation assignments, or a short radio unit lasting two weeks, useful as these can be."⁸ The program recommended by the Council is steadily receiving increased acceptance in the schools across our nation.

Teaching of Listening Skills

In developing the listening skills of junior and senior high-school students, teachers might:

1. Administer a standardized listening test, such as the Brown-Carlson Listening Test to the group to be trained.
2. Discuss with each student his achievement on the test.
3. Analyze each listener's performance in terms of the habits which separate good and poor performers.
4. Replace the wrong habits with effective listening skills. This is largely accomplished with regular practice sessions.

While practice in listening may not make perfect listeners, it can make better listeners. It will pay off in clearer understanding, higher academic achievement, closer personal friendships, and increased efficiency in almost every task. During listening sessions students should have their desks clear, sit in comfortable positions with eyes on the speaker, show by expressive faces that they are "with" the speaker, be patient if the speaker has difficulty, and be able to offer constructive criticism.

College-preparatory junior and senior high-school students should find note-taking during listening helpful because they will almost certainly be subjected to lectures in college. A teacher might demonstrate the process of note-taking by making notes himself while the students make their own. Later he might mimeograph his notes and have students compare their notes with his.

Students should be held responsible for much more than the material in their textbooks. In frequent short examinations students should be held accountable for the content of recitations and class discussions. They should make a regular practice of taking notes on both class discussions and class assignments.

Occasions for improving listening arise every day. There are daily needs for directions, explanations, and reports, together with show-and-tell and experience-sharing periods. Opportunities for speaking should be included because students like to be listened to, and their satisfaction in receiving attention may increase their willingness to listen to others.

Listening skills for enjoyment, enrichment, and appreciation must also be developed. Oral reading, choric prose, choric poetry, and the telling and dramatization of stories are rich sources for listening experiences. The sincere, natural, oral presentation of poems plays an important part in helping students to catch the spirit and the magic of poetry.

Emphasis on courteous habits of listening is important and opportunities should be provided to practice this art. Participation in everyday conversations demands courteous listening. Attention should be directed to taking personal interest in what the speaker is saying, avoiding interruptions, and making appropriate responses.

Radio, recordings, and transcriptions offer many and varied opportunities to improve discriminative listening. The

effective use of recordings and transcripts depends upon the creativeness and ingenuity of the teacher.

Television and sound motion picture films offer multiple sense appeal and are a source of tremendous value in a program designed to improve listening abilities. Students should be guided to develop selectivity in listening and viewing these media by surveying a weekly TV guide and posting on bulletin boards announcements, reviews, and pictorial illustrations of recommended current programs on radio, TV, in the motion picture theatre, or in the legitimate theatre. They must learn to make the best possible use of radio and television, to hear accurately, to interpret adequately, and to evaluate carefully, if the flood of information coming over these media are to be of use to them. They must learn to check opinions voiced by commentators against what they know or can learn through observation, through conversation, and through reading.

Aids for the Teaching of Listening

Educational literature lists many aids and devices for the teaching listening. A careful appraisal should be made of these aids and devices before adopting them.

A group of teachers in the Phoenix (Ariz.) Union High School have described classroom experiences in the development of appreciative and critical listening abilities in a mimeographed document edited by Alexander Frazier, a member of the Committee on Listening of the National Council of Teachers of English. The pamphlet is called *Projects in Listening* and is available from the Superintendent of Schools, Phoenix, Ariz. A stimulating series of "44 Things to Do in Listening" is offered by Nichols and Stevens in *Are You Listening?*⁹

It should be pointed out that reading success depends, in part at least, upon the student's ability to listen. Listening and speaking provide the vocabulary and the sentence patterns for reading. Instruction in specific listening skills may result in the improvement of reading comprehension, critical thinking, and better attitudes toward reading.

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IV. Evaluation of Programs and Students

Program Evaluation. If a developmental reading program is to meet its goals, it is imperative to conduct a systematic and continuous program of appraisal, not only of the students' progress, but of the entire program. The evaluation of the reading program involves considerably more than the collection of scores. Evaluation entails arriving at conclusions about the degree to which objectives of the reading program are being achieved.

The objectives of a reading program should be developed by the local staff after considering the needs and the capabilities of the students for whom the program is planned. Staff members involved in developmental reading must analyze their program carefully to ascertain whether the methods and materials used fulfill the requirements of a well-rounded program. At various times during the school year and certainly at the end of the year, the instructor should evaluate the total progress of his students in order to appraise his own teaching effectiveness. A knowledge of the newest teaching techniques and of the latest materials used in the field of reading will strengthen this evaluation.

These are some of the benefits derived from an evaluation of a developmental reading program:

1. Teachers learn which objectives have been reached and where self-improvement is needed.
2. Data obtained can be used for predicting success in courses requiring verbal facility.
3. Evidences of improvement serve as an inspiration for the teachers.
4. Results of the evaluation can be used in assessing the program and in justifying expenditures.
5. Results can be used for informing the public and fellow staff members.
6. Interest in the reading program is stimulated.

When members of the developmental reading staff are involved in evaluating the reading program, they should consider the local needs. Developmental programs of schools

located in farming or laboring communities might require somewhat different programs than would be needed in college communities where the intellectual climate might be different. Thus, when evaluation takes place, the staff members must decide whether their program is right for their community.

Is There Coordination with the Entire Staff?

The teachers who are involved in developmental reading programs should evaluate the extent of coordination with the administration and supervisory staff. If the developmental reading program is to be successful, other members of the school staff must be made aware of the program so that their fullest cooperation and understanding may be obtained.

Is the Developmental Reading Teacher Professionally Prepared to Direct the Program?

Developmental reading teachers in the junior and senior high schools should be trained to administer tests, to diagnose reading problems, to utilize reading materials to their best advantages, to serve as in-service leaders for the rest of the faculty, and to provide dynamic leadership for the reading program. They should hold certification as reading teachers or reading specialists.

Does the Room Have Adequate Facilities for a Developmental Reading Program?

The reading room of a high school should be large enough to accommodate adequately an English class of average size. In order to justify the cost of special furniture such as bookshelves, booths, and tables, the room should be used for reading the entire school day. The following equipment should be contained in this room:

1. Movable tables for audio-visual equipment
2. Permanently anchored screen or screens for viewing films
3. Chalkboard (24 feet by 4 feet) across the front of the room
4. Bulletin board (16 feet by 4 feet)
5. Ample shelving facilities for book displays and storage
6. Pacer booths for larger reading machines
7. Adequate lighting for the entire room

8. Additional furniture (teacher's desk, group-work tables, etc.)
9. Standard dictionaries including an unabridged dictionary.

Most psychologists agree that the physical features of the room and facilities within the room are essential in creating pupil interest, aiding teacher-pupil motivation, and improving reading skills.

Are There Adequate Materials?

It is important that developmental reading materials used by junior and senior high school students not be those ordinarily used by elementary school students. The materials would not be enthusiastically accepted if the pupils knew that younger children had used them or were using them at the present time.

Although the success of the developmental reading program centers around the teacher of reading, the following materials are recommended:

1. Basic non-consumable books
2. Wide range of work-type practice reading materials for vocabulary development, rate improvement, increased comprehension and better word attack skills
3. Audio-visual equipment including 16mm movie projector, filmstrip projector, overhead projector, record player, tape recorder, group pacer and films, and tachistoscopic projector
4. Individual reading pacers
5. Group reading tests (diagnostic and achievement)
6. Recreational reading materials

A wide variety of materials is as essential to the developmental program as to the remedial program. Note also that the scheduling of the developmental classes may be the determining factor in the utilization of the materials.

Are There Proper Library Facilities Available?

A developmental reading program functions more effectively when the facilities and materials of an excellent library are available. The librarian can be a valuable resource person in aiding the teacher and the pupil in the selection of books. Library personnel must continually select new books that are of

interest to the pupils within the area that the school serves. Various annotated booklists such as those published by the American Library Association can be helpful in the selection of these books.

In addition to the library facilities within the school, classroom book collections are essential. A variety of fiction and non-fiction books at various reading levels, current dictionaries and encyclopedias, and newspapers and magazines can be very beneficial to the students and can contribute to the effectiveness of the developmental reading program.

Does Content of Instruction Meet the Needs of the Group?

The developmental reading teacher should base the content of his instruction upon the needs of his students as determined by past records, standardized tests, and observations. The content of instruction will also be based upon the amount of time devoted to developmental reading, the reading level and school grade level of the students, and the available materials and facilities.

The content of instruction should include the following:

Word Attack Skills. The difficult vocabulary of high school subjects requires good word attack skills. Instruction should be given in areas such as use of context clues, structural analysis, and use of the dictionary. Phonetic analysis should be taught where needed, and emphasis should be placed on structural analysis including syllabication, roots, prefixes, and suffixes.

Rate and Comprehension. Students should be taught to read at faster rates because of the increase in amount of reading material in junior and senior high school. However, they should also be taught to gear their speed to the material being read. All effort to increase speed should be accompanied by comprehension tests.

Vocabulary. Each school subject such as science or social studies carries its own special vocabulary; therefore, specific instruction should be given to students to increase their vocabulary and to deal with the special vocabulary of content areas. Other skills necessary to improve concentration, listening, and notetaking should be stressed.

Study Skills. Skills needed by students to study other subjects should be included in the developmental reading program.

Recreational Reading. Students should be encouraged to read for pleasure so that they can put to use the skills developed in the reading class. A definite plan should be devised to promote reading as a desirable leisure-time activity.

Is the In-Service Training Program Adequate?

Recent studies have indicated a growing concern about the adequacy of the preparation and the provision for professional guidance for teachers of developmental reading. For example, a recent survey made by the Evansville Council of the International Reading Association indicated that most teachers do not believe that they have been sufficiently prepared to teach reading from the standpoint of formal instruction in teacher training institutions. Also, a high percentage of these teachers indicated a willingness to improve themselves through in-service training programs.

Realizing the complexities encountered in an attempt to evaluate an in-service training program for the teachers of reading, the following questions have been prepared as a guide:

1. Has the in-service training program been well planned?
2. Is there concrete evidence of improvement in the entire reading program?
3. Are the teachers from districts where reading improvement is most needed given first preference as enrollees?
4. Are the graduates using new methods, techniques, and materials?
5. Is there a special reading teacher in each school who will lead the in-service training program in that school?
6. Are the teachers who finish the in-service training more enthusiastic about the teaching of reading?
7. Are attempts being made to stress the importance of reading to teachers of other content areas?
8. Has the community been made aware of new techniques being tried?

The above are but a few of the questions to be answered if we are to realize our goal of teaching all to read. In a rapidly changing society, these answers must constantly be analyzed.

In-service training can be facilitated through membership in reading organizations. The International Reading Association, the Indiana State Council, and local councils have been successful in upgrading reading instruction.

Are Public Relations Acquainting the Public with Reading Programs?

Since our culture places a high premium on literacy, the general public should be made aware of the tremendous effort being made by the public schools to train all pupils to read efficiently. Evaluating the means by which the public learns of these efforts is no easy task. However, some effective techniques to acquaint the public with the aims and objectives of established reading programs should be used.

An effective public relations technique is the speakers bureau which can be used to disseminate information about areas. A booklet can be issued which lists competent speakers the reading program and its relation to other subject matter who are available for civic groups, Parent Teacher Association, and other school corporations.

Another area of public relations to be considered is the reading improvement program for adults. The enrollees in these night classes are secretaries, representatives of management and labor, and members of other professional groups. Closely related to this public school program are courses offered in the evening by many local colleges. Usually excellent public relations are fostered when several competent members of the public school staff are willing to teach these classes. Many educators feel that reading improvement courses for adults will also serve as a springboard for improving the reading skills of students.

Finally, the summer reading program is probably one of the most effective public relations programs offered by the public schools. In the first place, the program requires extensive cooperation of the parent. He usually visits the school more frequently during this period. Also the parent seems to become more interested in the total reading program, for perhaps it is during this period that he discovers for the first time where his child is in relation to all of the other children in the entire reading program. Mass media also become indispensable aids in disseminating information concerning the summer reading program. Each carries special and varied information to encourage enrollment in these classes.

The support of each teacher is needed for informing the public as well as enlisting its cooperation. The teacher serves as the bridge across the gap between theory and actual practice as boys and girls are being instructed in reading.

Student Evaluation

The conscientious developmental reading teacher is always concerned with the measurement and evaluation of the student's achievement. This evaluation begins when the teacher checks the results of the diagnostic test to determine what materials to use. Each student must be evaluated continually throughout the course as the instructor gives individual assistance.

The greatest dilemma that faces the developmental reading teacher is determining grades. Practices of determining grades in developmental reading vary from school to school and from teacher to teacher. However, since the purpose of developmental reading is to take the student at his present level of reading efficiency and increase this efficiency as much as possible, his individual progress should be considered rather than his progress in relation to other members of the class or to the instructor's standards of reading proficiency.

Many tests are available to place students within the proper group and to determine the reading level of materials to be used. Some tests that have been used successfully are listed below:

1. *American School Achievement Tests*, Part I, Reading, Advanced Battery, Grades 7-9, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.
Number of Forms: 2
Time: 30 (40)
Measures: Sentence Meaning, Word Meaning, Paragraph Meaning, and Total Lower levels available
Useful for a general survey of reading skills
Speed a major factor
2. *California Reading Test*, Intermediate, Grades 7-9, Advanced, Grades 9-14, California Test Bureau, Madison, Wisconsin.
Number of Forms: 3
Time: 66-68 (80)
Measures: Vocabulary and Comprehension
Power a major factor
3. *Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test*, Grades 9-14, Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton.
Two levels C₁ and C₂

Time:

Measures: Vocabulary, Comprehension, and Rate

4. *Davis Reading Test*, Grades 11-13, Psychological Corporation, New York.
Number of Forms: 4
Time: 40 (55)
Measures: Speed of Comprehension
Fifteen reading selections of varying length are presented to the student.
5. *Diagnostic Reading Tests: Upper Level*, Grade 7-College Freshman Year, The Committee on Diagnostic Tests, Inc., Mountain Home, North Carolina.
Number of Forms: 8
Time: 40 minutes
Measures: Rate, Vocabulary, Narrative and Textbook Type Comprehension
6. *Gates Reading Survey*, Grades 3-10, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
Number of Forms: 3
Time: (50-160)
Measures: Speed and accuracy, Accuracy, Vocabulary, Level of Comprehension, and Total
Power is a major factor
7. *Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills*, Advanced, Grades 5-9, Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston.
Number of Forms: 4
Time: 90 minutes
Measures: Vocabulary and paragraph comprehension, reading of maps, charts, graphs; indexing; dictionary skills and use of references.
8. *Iowa Silent Reading Tests*, Advanced, High School and College, Harcourt, Brace, and World, New York.
Number of Forms: 4
Time: 60 minutes
Measures: Comprehension of words, sentences, paragraphs, rate, alphabetizing and indexing
9. *Kelley-Green Reading Comprehension Test*, Grades 9-13, Harcourt, Brace, and World, New York.
Number of Forms: 2
Time: 63 (75) (2 sessions)

Measures: Paragraph Comprehension, Directed Reading, Retention of Details, Reading Rate, and Total Content deals with general science and social science

10. *Metropolitan Achievement Tests: Reading, Advanced, Grades 7-9*, Harcourt, Brace, and World, New York.

Number of Forms: 3

Time: 35 (45)

Measures: Reading, Vocabulary, and Total
Excellent Manual for interpreting results

11. *Nelson-Denny Reading Test*, Grades 9-16, Houghton-Mifflin Co., Boston.

Number of Forms: 2

Time: 30

Measures: Vocabulary, Comprehension, and Reading Rate

12. *Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, Reading, Forms 2B, Grades 10-12, 3B, Grades 7-9*, Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton.

Number of Forms: 2

Time: 70 minutes

Measures: Ability to read new materials with comprehension, insight and critical understanding

13. *SRA Reading Record*, Grades 8-13. Science Research Associates, Chicago.

Number of Forms: 1

Time: 28 (40)

Measures: Rate, Comprehension, Paragraph Meaning, Directory Reading, Map-Table-Graph Reading, Advertisement Reading, Index Usage, Technical Vocabulary, Sentence Meaning, General Vocabulary, and Total

Speed is a major factor

14. *Stanford Achievement Tests: Reading, Advanced, Grades 7-9*, Harcourt, Brace, and World, New York.

Number of Forms: 4

Time: 37 (45)

Measures: Paragraph Meaning and Word Meaning
Speed is a major factor.

Informal Inventories

An informal inventory of reading skills needed in specific content areas may be administered to individuals or to groups to

make a quick appraisal of both the weaknesses and strengths of a particular group *in the set of skills being evaluated*. Students should be adequately introduced to the purpose of the test and should understand that no grade will be given. The fact that the informal inventory will indicate strengths as well as weaknesses should also be stressed.

As the test is administered, the teacher should give a brief oral explanation of each skill before it is covered. Questions covering skills A through C are of the openbook type, but the questions based on skills D through H should be answered after the information has been read and books have been closed. (See suggested outline.)

As the students check their answers on the following day, answers can be discussed and some "on the spot teaching" may ensue. Students who miss two or more questions in any area can be considered deficient in that area. The student tabulates his scores and from these figures the teacher can develop a class record form which will reveal individual strengths and weaknesses as well as those of the class as a whole.

Thus an informal inventory can become an important diagnostic and teaching tool. Diagnosis must be a continuing process and should be supplemented by other information such as cumulative records, standardized test scores, informal interest inventories, and classroom observation.

A GROUP INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

(A suggested outline for preparing a group informal reading inventory to test a pupil's ability to use a specific text.)

A. Using parts of the book

1. On what page would you find the map that shows _____?

2. On what page does chapter _____ begin? What is the title of the unit of which the chapter is a part?

3. How can the introduction on page _____ help you in your study?

4. Of what value are the questions, activities, and vocabulary shown on page _____ for your understanding of the material in the textbook?

5. In what part of the book would you look to find the page reference for the topic _____?

B. Using source materials

1. What library aid will tell the library number of the book _____ so that you would be able to find the book on the shelves?

2. What is a biography? _____

3. Name one set of encyclopedias. _____
How are the topics in it arranged? _____

4. Name a library guide that will help you to find a specific magazine article. If you were to give a report in class and knew that most of your information would be in current magazines, what guide would you use that would tell you which magazine to use and what issue of it to use for information of your topic?

C. Using maps, charts, etc.

1. What does the map on page _____ show you?

2. What do the _____ on the map on page _____ represent?

3. Look at the chart on page _____. (Ask for some specific bit of information that is shown by the chart.)

4. Look at the picture on page_____. (Ask for some specific bit of information that is shown by the picture and also for an interpretation of the information.)

(Questions under skills D through H should be based on a 3- or 4-page selection in the textbook.)

D. Understanding vocabulary

1. Define_____
2. What did the author mean when he said_____?
3. What is a_____?

E. Noting main ideas (3 questions asking for main ideas)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

F. Noting details (3 questions asking for specific bits of information)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

G. Drawing conclusions (3 questions)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

H. Noting organization

—Each author follows an outline in writing the information in your textbook. After looking through the chapter, write down the author's first main topic.

(or)

If you were to outline the material that you have read, what would be the main topics or headings?

A MODULAR SCHEME FOR PROCEDURE IN LABORATORY OR CLASSROOM

The following fifty-minute units and their components may be arranged to form a term of study of any number of weeks.

Meeting 1

Discussion of aims and methods	10 minutes
Reading with pacers	25 minutes
Timed essay from workbook, with quiz	15 minutes

Meeting 2

Drill in study skills or vocabulary	20 minutes
Reading with pacers	30 minutes

Meeting 3

Discussion of aims and methods	10 minutes
Reading with pacers	25 minutes
Reading film, with quiz	15 minutes

Meeting 4

Discussion of aims and methods	10 minutes
Reading with pacers	25 minutes
Drill in study skills or vocabulary	15 minutes

Meeting 5

Reading with pacers	30 minutes
Reading film shown at 2 speeds, with quiz	20 minutes

Meeting 6

Discussion of aims and methods	20 minutes
Drill in study skills or vocabulary	30 minutes

Meeting 7

Reading with pacers	25 minutes
Timed essay from workbook, with quiz	15 minutes

Note: Whenever possible, a brief warm-up period with the pacers or accelerators is desirable at the beginning of the class period.

V. Reading in Content Areas

Students who read efficiently in basal readers may have difficulty mastering content area material. Usually the deficiencies can be traced to the difficulty of the vocabulary, the rapid introduction of new concepts and facts, the lack of background information, the demand for maximum retention, the lack of required study skills, or frequent references to previously discussed material.

Specific instruction in applying specialized reading skills to the content areas is best given by the teachers of each subject. Many teachers do not have the training to teach reading but, with some effort, can provide experiences that help students to become efficient readers in their areas. While content area teachers may not consciously teach reading, many tasks related to good teaching involve reading.

Tasks of the Content Area Teacher

The first task of the teacher is to assess the needs and abilities of each new class. A survey of achievement and intelligence test scores and informal tests and observations may reveal the necessity to teach students to read the text, that is, to interpret illustrative aids in the text, master the vocabulary and to use efficiently the various parts of the text. As needs are identified, differentiated assignments or an easier text may be required. Shepherd^{12, 13} and Strang and Bracken⁵¹ suggest the use of informal tests to check the ability of students to use and to read the text. As weaknesses are identified, lessons should be planned to teach students the skills in which they are deficient.

The second task in good instruction includes the development of background, readiness, and motivation.

The third task is the development of vocabulary peculiar to each subject area. Many students must be taught to observe the context clues provided by the author. Familiar words may have new meanings in various subjects. A knowledge of the meanings of common roots, prefixes, and suffixes is a definite aid in learning some new words. Suggestions for developing

interest in enlarging vocabularies and in the origin of words is discussed in another section of this guide.

The fourth task in good instruction is providing practice in the skills required to master each subject. A lesson to teach the first use of a required skill should be planned. For example, in English an introductory lesson for each literary genre demonstrates to students efficient ways to read and interpret such materials. In mathematics and science, work periods should be provided to give instruction on how to read explanations and directions, and how to use the problem-solving approach.

The fifth task of the content area teacher is the encouragement of wide reading of books, periodicals and reference materials. This reading may be done to build background for instruction, to extend the information in the text, and to develop interest in current information related to the specific subjects. The efficient use of reference skills must be taught as needed to achieve the goals in each content area.

Interested content area teachers will find many helpful suggestions in the references listed with this section. They will also find that many content area texts provide specific directions for teaching students to apply specialized reading skills to their subjects. Organizations such as the National Council of Teachers of English and the National Council for the Social Studies publish journals and bulletins which give definite suggestions to help teachers vary instruction to meet the needs and abilities of individual students.

Each teacher can contribute to the school-wide reading improvement program by teaching students to apply efficiently the basic reading skills peculiar to his subject. As content area teachers scan the suggestions listed below, other ideas for emphasizing specific reading skills in their areas will be apparent. In addition, informal inventories may be devised for nearly every content area.

Techniques to Improve Reading in Content Areas Art and Industrial Art

1. Provide instruction and practice in reading and following specific directions.
2. Help students expand their vocabularies in order to comprehend text and supplementary material.
3. Encourage students to gain new ideas from wide reading in these subjects.

Business Education

1. Use reading test scores and intelligence test scores in identifying poor readers.
2. Use informal tests on text passages to indicate specific reading difficulties.
3. Provide texts suitable for the reading level of the majority of the students.
4. Compile lists of technical words for building a useful vocabulary.
5. Teach students how to use the various parts of the text.
6. Help students to get the meaning of difficult passages in the texts.
7. Encourage students to read extensively material related to the business education field.

English

1. Use test data to classify students at various reading levels in your classes.
2. Group students to take care of individual differences in reading when there is a wide range of reading ability in a class.
3. Use a variety of exercises to help students enlarge their vocabularies.
4. Stress the importance of adjusting the speed and the method of reading to the reading purpose.
5. Teach students to set definite purposes in reading assignments.
6. Provide two- and three-level assignments in texts and in supplementary materials.
7. Demonstrate that directed eye movements and greater concentration can help to improve both rate and comprehension.
8. Give an entire class instruction and practice in the reading skills that students need.
9. Introduce each literary type by showing students how to read and interpret that kind of material.
10. Teach students to be more intelligent readers of newspapers and magazines.
11. Use records, films, and television to arouse greater interest in reading and teach use of reference skills.
12. Share reading experiences through the oral reading of poems and plays.

13. Stimulate students to read library books intensively at both school and home.

Foreign Language

1. Provide the opportunity for students to read a variety of material.
2. Suggest appropriate methods and techniques for reading assignments.
3. Use informal tests to determine the student's mastery of the text.
4. Build vocabularies in a variety of ways.
5. Use graduated degrees of challenge to get from one plateau of learning to the next one.
6. Plan for differentiated assignments.

Home Economics

1. Provide your students with reading experiences that may be applied at home.
2. Provide instruction and practice in critical reading of food and clothing advertisements.
3. Encourage your students to read newspaper and magazine articles on child care, homemaking, and other related home problems.
4. Demonstrate the importance of accurate reading of directions in recipes and patterns.
5. Provide master vocabulary lists and stimulate wide reading to increase the student's general and technical vocabularies.

Mathematics

1. Use reading text data in identifying students that have difficulty in reading mathematical material.
2. Select texts that have clear-cut explanations of principles.
3. Provide instruction on how to read explanations, directions, and verbal problems.
4. Teach students to distinguish clearly between errors in computation and errors in reading.
5. Have weaker students read problems aloud to see what difficulties are encountered.
6. Provide for individual differences by using two- and three-level assignments.

7. Encourage students to bring problems or interesting mathematical data from newspapers, magazines, and television.
8. Help students to build a vocabulary of terms used in mathematics.

Music

1. Help students to build up a vocabulary of musical terms.
2. Stress the importance of correct pronunciation in reading words of songs.
3. Ask students to read about music and musicians.
4. Ask students to report on musical reviews and music news in newspapers and magazines.
5. Use choral speaking to improve pronunciation and phrasing in learning the words of songs.

Physical Education

1. Have students read official rule books to learn the rules and terms of various sports.
2. Ask students to read assigned articles to understand pertinent subjects in health and physical education.
3. Arouse interest in reading about sports in newspapers, magazines, and books.

Science

1. Use reading test data to identify students at various reading levels in your classes.
2. Show students the necessity for the careful reading of directions.
3. Teach students to see cause and effect relationships.
4. Encourage students to draw inferences and make generalizations.
5. Help students to enlarge their vocabularies.
6. Give students plenty of practice in precise, analytical reading.
7. Allow sufficient time for the study of formulas, charts, and diagrams.
8. Motivate reading through problem-solving.
9. Select texts and library books at different difficulty levels.
10. Teach students to skim in locating materials.
11. Use various procedures to arouse interest in the reading of science material.

Social Studies

1. Use reading test data to identify students at various reading levels in your class.
2. Set purposes for reading in social studies assignments.
3. Motivate reading through group projects.
4. Teach students to apply map knowledge to particular problems and to interpret illustrated aids provided in texts and reference materials.
5. Use informal tests to find out if students understand their social studies texts.
6. Teach students to locate information.
7. Teach students to see cause and effect relationships in reading social studies material.
8. Encourage students to distinguish fact from opinion in reading historical documents, newspapers, and magazines.
9. Teach students to read newspapers intelligently by withholding judgment until they have examined all sides of questions.
10. Arouse interest in real life problems.
11. Differentiate assignments to meet the needs of students at various reading levels.
12. Encourage students to appraise authors and to determine which authors are best qualified.
13. Help students to enlarge their vocabularies.
14. Encourage wide reading through the use of supplementary texts and reading lists.
15. Build background before expecting pupils to read.
16. Emphasize understanding and concepts instead of mere reproduction of materials.

References

The following professional books provide extensive lists of skills needed for each content area and techniques for teaching them effectively.

1. Blair, Glenn Meyers. *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., Revised Edition 1956.
2. Bond, Guy T., and Miles A. Tinker. *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.
3. Bullock, Harrison. *Helping the Non-Reading Pupil in the Secondary School*. Columbia University: Teachers College Bureau of Publication, 1956.
4. Carpenter, Helen McCracken. *Skills in Social Studies*. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1954, 1963.

5. Fay, Leo C. *Reading in the High School*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Classroom Teachers, A.E.R.A. of N.E.A., 1956, 1960. Entire book.
6. Figurel, Alan J. *New Frontiers in Reading: International Reading Association Conference Proceedings*. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1960.
7. ———. *Reading as an Intellectual Activity: International Reading Association Conference Proceedings*. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1963.
8. Gray, William S., and Bernice Rogers. *Maturity in Reading: Its Nature and Appraisal*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956.
9. Harris, Albert J. *How to Increase Reading Ability*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1962.
10. McCullough, Constance, Ruth Strang, and Arthur Traxler. *Problems in the Improvement of Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955, 1964.
11. National Council of Teachers of English. *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956.
12. Shepherd, David L. *Effective Reading in Science*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1960.
13. ———. *Effective Reading in Social Studies*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1960.
14. Simpson, Elizabeth A. *Helping High School Students to Read Better*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954.
15. Strang, Ruth, and Dorothy Bracken. *Making Better Readers*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1957.

VI. Student Growth Through Reading

Adolescent and teen-age interests tend to crowd out reading. The teen-ager's transition to specialized instructors and new personal demands seem to account for failures to make the change to the world of adult books—books which may be difficult and unfamiliar. It is felt by a number of educators that there is no greater educational problem than equipping our secondary schools to help students acquire life-time reading habits.

Needs of the Students

Adolescents need guidance in identifying, extending, and intensifying their interests. Interests motivate behavior and may account for the effort exercised to attain particular ends. Since interests are learned, a primary teaching task is to determine where adolescent interests lie psychologically, physiologically, and sociologically. Reading can become an aesthetic experience. Through reading adolescents can:

1. Develop an awareness of themselves and others
2. Gain emotional release or satisfaction
3. Develop intellectual curiosity and reflective thinking
4. Develop social insights through the reinforcement or challenging of attitudes
5. Gain a sense of belonging to the culture
6. Gain information

The real job is not so much to meet as it is to direct and channel reading interests. To do this, we must get deep down "beneath" where adolescents—and children and adults—really live to discover the well-springs from which interests derive and to select for emphasis those interests which can provide important touchstones to maturing minds and spirits.

Methodology

To develop interest in reading, consideration might be given to the following:

1. Analysis of the students
2. Analysis of the program

3. Teacher enthusiasm
4. Motivation of students
5. Readability of materials
6. Book reports

Analysis of the Students

The first step toward developing greater interest in reading is to make an analysis of the students' attitudes, their backgrounds, their abilities, and their previous experiences in reading. This can be accomplished through interest inventories, informal questionnaires, completion inventories, standardized tests, students' records, informal reading inventories, and teacher observations. Each student is physically, mentally, emotionally, and culturally unique, and thus each has a different personal foundation upon which to build his reading program. Teachers must find out what a student's foundation is and use it as a point of departure in developing the basic reading skills through individualized and group instruction.

Analysis of the Program

The major goal of the reading program is the mastery of all the reading skills. The ultimate goal of the reading program is the development of continuing interests in reading—interests which enlarge the students' range of ideas, broaden tolerance, quicken emotions, sharpen perceptions and understandings, and deepen the sense of moral and public responsibilities to the fulfillment of his potentiality. The creation of a strong love for reading and permanent interests in reading are the crowning achievement of a modern reading program.

Personal purposes and problems may be clarified and answers may be expressed in biographies and novels. Through free exploration of books, newspapers, magazines, and journals, reading becomes a personally satisfying experience of ideas which may lead to creative endeavors.

Teacher Enthusiasm

Each teacher—social studies, science, physical education, industrial arts, agriculture, home economics, literature, and others—builds reading interests while at the same time enriching his own program. Extensive individual reading in each content area reaches, motivates, and capitalizes on the interest of certain types of students. Each teacher has his

own ideas and methods and each should use those he feels work best for him. The key to the building of life-time reading habits lies in large measure with an interested, perceptive teacher who helps students in basic reading skills; who has read so extensively in both new and old literature that he is able to guide young people to books related to their interests; who understands the reading interests of adolescents; who concentrates on the effective presentation of poetry; who helps with materials, language, and background to build an understanding of literature of the past; and who strives for varied methods of teaching literature.

Motivation of Students

The selection of books should be left largely to the individual students whose interests are being served. Interests are closely related to motivation and they develop from attempts to satisfy basic motives. In motivating students to read:

1. Allow time for browsing among a wide variety of books and show ways to make browsing time meaningful.
2. Display book jackets or books themselves.
3. Read excerpts from books orally. Encourage students to read excerpts orally.
4. Capitalize upon students' interests in TV and movies.
5. Allow free reading time.
6. Form a well-organized reading club.
7. Promote a book fair.
8. Encourage students to build a personal library of paperbacks from local stores or commercial companies.
9. Establish a classroom library.
10. Enlist co-operation of parents.
11. Correlate reading with other classroom activities—science, dramatics, etc.
12. Provide opportunities for class and group discussion of books.
13. Help pupils make use of the city library and other available libraries.
14. Dramatize stories or parts of stories.
15. Introduce students to and encourage them to use the book sections of newspapers and magazines.

Interest determines whether the students read adventure, science, or other materials, while taste refers to the quality of material within the interest area.

Readability of Materials

A knowledge of readability formulas, which gauge the difficulty level of reading materials, helps teachers to know how to recognize the materials which best fit the needs of the individual students. Objective ways for determining readability have been produced by several specialists in the field of reading. Three widely used formulas are described in the following articles:

1. Dale, Edgar, and Chall, Jeanne S., "A Formula for Predicting Readability," *EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN*, Ohio State University, 27:11-20, January, 1948.
2. Spache, George, "A New Readability Formula for Primary-Grade Reading Materials," *ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL*, 53:410-13, March, 1953.
3. Yoakum, Gerald A., "Determining the Readability of Instructional Materials," *CURRENT PROBLEMS OF READING INSTRUCTION, SEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON READING*, University of Pittsburgh, 47-53, 1951.

These and other formulas identify and measure some factors that make reading materials too difficult or too easy to meet the needs and abilities of a given child. It should be remembered however that readability formulas do not take into account concept load, literary quality and subtlety, and the abilities and interests of individual students.

After a formula has been applied, the materials are subsequently provided with grade-level markings as reference points of difficulty. Since there are variations of from five to nine grades in the reading abilities of the students in a single classroom, the materials are not always suited to the students for whom they are intended. Any book or material considered for use as basic instructional material should be readable by all of those who are to use it.

The readability of a book depends not only on the material to be read but also on the abilities, background, and interests of the person doing the reading. Two problems face the teacher: the readability of the content of the books, and the reading abilities of the student.

To help the teacher with these problems not only are textbooks assigned to graded levels, but many fiction and non-

fiction books have been graded by use of a formula and categorized into interest levels. These books then can be utilized to supplement the curriculum and meet the needs of individual students both in the area of content and interest.

Book Reports

After students select and read their books, they are often made to prepare detailed book reports that spoil their enjoyment. It is true that students can gain from reflecting on what they have read but many are discouraged by the traditional "What is the setting, what is your favorite part," and similar questions.

Following are some suggestions for those seeking a more imaginative approach to book reporting:

1. A report on the book as it would be given by a man of the future.
2. The diary of a major character.
3. A letter written in the role of a book character.
4. Description of the characters.
5. Round-table discussion under a student chairman.
6. Oral reading and discussion of brief excerpts.
7. Dramatization.
8. Puppet show.
9. Designing of a book jacket, including illustration and blurb.
10. Play, TV, or motion-picture version of the book.
11. Presentation to a publisher.
12. Sales talk (salesman attempting to sell the book to the class).
13. The trial of a major character.
14. The author meets the critics (author defends his book).
15. Formal written report.
16. Personal reading record.

The teacher should attempt to make the book report an enjoyable activity. With proper guidance, one book can be a springboard toward the selection of the next one exemplifying the ultimate goal—a desire to read for personal pleasure and profit.

VII. Current Trends and Practices in Secondary Programs

Today there are many new and successful reading plans and practices in junior and senior high schools. There are, in fact, almost as many different ways of teaching reading as there are schools. Each school, it seems, has adapted a program best suited for its particular need. Several plans which are widely used for teaching reading in senior and junior high schools are described in the following paragraphs.

Reading Taught by English Teachers

One of the most common arrangements is for the English teacher to teach reading as part of, or in place of, an English or literature course. Such instruction may be offered for a full period or part of a period and given daily or at intervals through the week. In some places reading is taught five days a week for a part of a semester, such as seven weeks or ten weeks.

Reading Taught by a Reading Specialist

A very common arrangement is one in which one teacher devotes his or her full time to reading instruction. Such an instructor usually has the title of "Reading Teacher," "Reading Specialist," or "Reading Consultant." This teacher may teach developmental reading or remedial reading, or both. Recently, there has been a strong trend toward adding a reading specialist to the staff who devotes full time to reading improvement for all students in either the junior high school or the senior high school.

Reading Taught by a Core Curriculum Teacher

In junior and senior high schools using the core curriculum, the core teacher often teaches reading for twenty-minutes or more of the daily schedule. Ordinarily this instruction is in developmental reading for all students.

Reading Taught by Special Subject Teachers

Some schools have attempted to develop a reading program in which each of the special subject teachers teaches the reading

skills that are needed in working with the subject matter in that particular field. Some special subject teachers have made a fine beginning in taking responsibilities for the teaching of reading. Often, however, special subject teachers find that they have two serious handicaps: usually, they are not trained as reading specialists and up to this time the reading skills needed in special subject areas have not been clearly analyzed and delineated.

Reading Laboratories

Many schools have incorporated reading laboratories into their reading programs. The laboratories, usually machine-centered, contain reading booths where a student may take a book and read with a pacer of some kind. The pacer forces the student to read at a set rate. A tachistoscope, which flashes phrases, digits or sentences on the screen may also be used. Common to most laboratories is a projector used to show reading films. The purpose of such films is to increase reading speed and improve comprehension.

Television

The audio-visual medium of television can be used for reading instruction, according to Shelley Umans who worked with the Board of Education of New York City and the New York State Board of Regents on a reading television series for two years. The main objective was to teach the basic reading skills. A "Teacher's Guide" was developed as an aid in preparing for the television lesson and as a resource bulletin for follow-up instruction.

Evaluation of the series showed that students viewing the telecasts gained slightly in reading achievement. However, whether the telecasts were the cause of the improvement could not be determined.

Paperback Books

Paperback books are becoming increasingly popular with both teachers and students. *Paperbound Books in Print*, the standard monthly catalog, reports that the production of paperbound titles has increased from 1,912 titles in 1959 to 21,000 in 1965. Some of the reasons for this popularity may be these: frequent adding of titles, attractive covers, small size and lightness of weight, inexpensiveness, large selection of mate-

rials, and availability. Teachers value these books because of their possible influence in raising the intellectual standards of students.

Programmed Learning Approach

This is another plan being used in the teaching of reading in junior and senior high schools. In this situation a student reads a selection in a workbook or kit, which may or may not be timed, and answers questions found at the end of the story. The student checks the answers with a correct list of answers and makes the necessary changes. Programmed materials are helpful for classes with a wide range of interests and abilities.

Flexible Grouping and Team Teaching

A newer approach to flexible grouping for reading instruction is combining students for large and small group lessons taught by a team of teachers. The team of teachers is usually composed of specialists in their field.

Community Resources

Teachers are discovering that community groups can make important contributions to reading programs. Local residents skilled in the crafts and professions may be glad to share their talents with the pupils. Their personal understandings of their subjects may bring new insights.

Other Trends and Practices

Many new trends and practices in the teaching of developmental reading at junior and senior high school levels are being developed. Detailed descriptions of current programs are frequently published in the *Journal of Reading* and other professional reading journals.

VIII. Professional Growth for the Teacher

Federal Aid to Education

At present the Federal government is providing much financial aid for special programs in reading. Some of these programs provide training for teachers while others provide additional materials and staff for reading classes. In order to be informed concerning the latest developments and current opportunities, contact the Federal Projects Coordinator in your area, or contact the State Reading Consultant, Capitol Building, Indianapolis, Indiana 46204.

Periodicals in the education field, especially those dealing with subject areas, provide information about institutes, projects, and studies in specific disciplines that are available through federal funds.

Courses in Reading Offered in Colleges and Universities

Specific details about individual courses may be obtained from each college or university. The courses are listed here as they were described by the various schools.

1. ANDERSON COLLEGE—Anderson, Indiana 46012
English 110 Developmental Reading. (For improvement of reading Speed and Comprehension.) 2 hrs. credit.
2. BALL STATE UNIVERSITY—
2000 University, Muncie, Indiana 47306
Undergraduate
Ed Rdg 494 The Teaching of Reading in Today's Schools. (4 times each year.) 4 hrs.
Graduate
Ed Rdg 560.3 Issues in the Teaching of Reading. (A workshop.) (1 time each year.) 4 hrs.
Ed Rdg 561.1 Methods and Materials in the Improvement of Secondary School Reading. (3 times each year.) 3 hrs.
Ed Rdg 560.4 The Organization and Supervision of a School Reading Program. (1 time each year.) 2 hrs.
Ed Rdg 565 Laboratory Experience in Clinical Diagnoses of Reading Difficulties. (Each summer.) 3 hrs.
Ed Rdg 570 Study of Reading Research. (1 time each year.) 3 hrs.
Ed Rdg 562 The Diagnosis of Remedial Reading Problems. (4 times each year.) 4 hrs.

- Ed Rdg 564 Clinical Diagnosis and Treatment of Reading Difficulties. (2 times each year.) 3 hrs.
- Ed Rdg 563 Practicum in Diagnosis and Treatment of Reading Problems. (Each summer.) 4 hrs.
3. BETHEL COLLEGE (Division of Education)—
1001 West McKinley Ave., Mishawaka, Indiana 46544
365 Developmental Reading. Offered once every two years. 3 hrs.
 4. BUTLER UNIVERSITY, College of Education—
Indianapolis, Indiana 46207
408 Problems in the Teaching of Reading. 3 hrs.
506 Problems of Teaching Reading to Atypic Children. 3 hrs.
507 Developmental Reading. 3 hrs.
508 Remedial and Corrective Reading. 3 hrs.
509 Clinical Reading. 3 hrs.
 5. DEPAUW UNIVERSITY—Greencastle, Indiana 46135
304 Teaching the Elementary Language Arts.
541 Problems of Improving Pupil Reading Skills.
001 Reading Techniques.
 6. EVANSVILLE COLLEGE (Graduate Division)—
P. O. Box 329, Evansville, Indiana 47704
Education 529 Reading Problems in the Upper Grades and the Junior High School. 3 hrs.
Education 530 Clinical Problems in the Teaching of Reading. 3 hrs.
 7. FORT WAYNE BIBLE COLLEGE—
800 West Rudisill Boulevard, Fort Wayne, Indiana 46807
Offers no courses specifically designed for the teaching of reading on the Junior or Senior High School level. Remedial and developmental reading is discussed to a limited extent in three courses for elementary school teachers, offered annually:
Ed 257 Elementary Curriculum and Methods. 3 hrs.
Ed 258 Language Arts. 3 hrs.
Ed 260 Children's Literature. 3 hrs.
 8. FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA—
Department of Education, Franklin, Indiana 46131
Education 34 Teaching of Reading in Elementary Schools. 3 hrs.
 9. HANOVER COLLEGE—Hanover, Indiana 47243
No course at Hanover specifically designed to train teachers of reading for secondary schools. However, 1) methods of reading instruction are included in the English methods aspects of the Principles of High School Teaching Course (Education 421B, 5 hrs.) and 2) Teaching of Language Arts and Reading (Education 324, 5 hrs.).
 10. INDIANA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY (English Department)—1600 East Washington Boulevard, Fort Wayne, Indiana
English 101 Developmental Reading. Not designed for teachers of reading, but rather as a skills course for college students.

11. INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY—Terre Haute, Indiana
 - Education 493 The Teaching of Reading in the Junior and Senior High School. I or II and S. 2 hrs.
 - Education 595 Problems in Reading. 3 semester hours. I or II and S. 3 hrs.
 - Education 470 Introduction to Reading Disability. I or II and S. 3 hrs.
 - Education 477 Clinical Practice with Reading Disability. I or II and S. 2 hrs.
12. INDIANA UNIVERSITY (School of Education)—
Bloomington, Indiana
 - E 335 Language Arts in the Elementary School. 4 hrs.
 - X 400 Remedial Reading. 3 hrs.
 - X 490 Independent Study in Reading—an.
 - S 365 Teaching of Reading in the High School. 2 hrs.
 - E 515 Workshop in Elementary Reading. (Credit arranged.)*
 - E 545 Advanced Study in the Teaching of Reading in the Elementary Schools. 3 hrs.
 - S 514 Advanced Study in the Teaching of Reading in the Junior and Senior High School. 3 hrs.
 - X 504 The Diagnosis and Treatment of Reading Disabilities in the Elementary School. 3 hrs.
 - X 505 The Diagnosis and Treatment of Reading Disabilities in High School and College. 3 hrs.
 - X 525 Practicum in Reading. 1-4 hrs.
 - X 590 Research in Reading. (Credit arranged.)
 - X 599 Master's Thesis in Reading. 3 hrs.
 - X 650 Internship in Reading. 1-4 hrs.
 - X 780 Seminar in Reading. 2 hrs.
 - X 799 Doctor's Thesis in Reading. 15 hrs.
13. MARIAN COLLEGE—3200 Cold Springs Road,
Indianapolis, Indiana 46222
 - Methods in Reading (for elementary teachers only).
 - No methods courses in reading as such for junior high and senior high teachers.
14. MANCHESTER COLLEGE—North Manchester, Indiana 46962
 - Ed 325 Developmental Reading.
 - Ed 099 Reading Improvement. Noncredit remedial course for college students.
15. PURDUE UNIVERSITY—Lafayette, Indiana 47907
 - 185 Developmental Reading. 1 hr.
 - 285 Critical Reading. Prerequisite: English 185 or consent of instructor. 2 hrs.
 - 687 Developmental Reading for Teachers. 3 hrs.
16. OAKLAND CITY COLLEGE—Oakland City, Indiana 47560
 - 311 Language Arts Method I. 4 hrs.

* One credit hour is offered for each week of full-time work.

17. ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE—
5500 Wabash Avenue, Terre Haute, Indiana 47803
Remedial Reading. No number, no credit. Two hours per week voluntary attendance.
18. SAINT FRANCIS COLLEGE—
2701 Spring Street, Fort Wayne, Indiana 46808
Education 560 Psychology of Reading. 3 hrs.
Education 561 Diagnostic and Corrective Procedures in Reading. 3 hrs.
Education 564 Problems in Reading in Junior and Senior High School. 3 hrs.
Education 565 Practicum in Reading, Elementary. 3 hrs.
Education 566 Practicum in Reading, Secondary. 3 hrs.
Education 570 Supervision of Teaching Reading. 3-6 hrs.
19. SAINT MARY'S COLLEGE (Division of Education)—
Notre Dame, Indiana 46556
Eng. 216 Applied Linguistics for Elementary Teachers. 3 hrs. graduate credit.
20. VALPARAISO UNIVERSITY—Valparaiso, Indiana 46383
220 Improvement of Reading Instruction. 2 hrs.
186 Teaching of Reading. 2 hrs.
21. MARION COLLEGE—Marion, Indiana
85 Developmental Reading Methods. (New course.) 2 hrs.
54 Elementary Curriculum II. (Each year.) 4 hrs.
22. ST. BENEDICT COLLEGE—Ferdinand, Indiana 47532
Ed 491 Developmental Reading, Elementary level.
23. TAYLOR UNIVERSITY (Office of the Academic Dean)—
Upland, Indiana 46989
Ed 482 Seminar in Reading Improvement. No credit.

Professional Journals and Proceedings (Yearbooks)

JOURNALS

The following list should be supplemented upon occasion by use of the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature* and the *Education Index*. Items given here are divided into those most likely to be of value to readers of this *Guide* (Group A) and those likely to be of secondary interest (Group B). (Abbreviations: NCTE, National Council of Teachers of English; IRA, International Reading Association.)

GROUP A

1. *Education*. 4300 W. 62nd St., Indianapolis, Indiana 46206. Nine issues, \$5.50.
2. *Education Digest*. 416 Longshore Drive, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48107. Eight issues, \$5.00.
3. *Elementary English*. NCTE, 508 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Illinois. Eight issues, \$5.00.
4. *The English Journal*. NCTE, 508 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Illinois. Nine issues, \$5.00.

5. *Journal of Reading*. IRA, Box 695, Newark, Delaware 19711. Eight issues, \$5.00. (Annual bibliography of research in secondary level reading.)
6. *The Journal of the Reading Specialist*. College Reading Association, Reading Laboratory, Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, New York. Quarterly, \$5.00.
7. *Reading Improvement*. P. O. Box 125, Oshkosh, Wisconsin 54902. Quarterly, \$3.50.
8. *The Reading Newsreport*. Box 63, Wethersfield, Connecticut. Eight issues, \$5.00.
9. *The Reading Teacher*. IRA, Box 695, Newark, Delaware 19711. Eight issues, \$5.00. (Either the *Journal of Reading* or *The Reading Teacher*—but not the *Reading Research Quarterly*—is available with membership in the IRA.)
10. *Indiana Reading Quarterly*. 222 Pine Hall, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401, \$3.00.

GROUP B

1. *The Clearing House*. Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, New Jersey. Subscriptions: 205 Lexington Ave., Sweet Springs, Missouri 65351. Nine issues, \$4.50.
2. *Dissertation Abstracts*. University Microfilms, Inc., 313 N. First St., Ann Arbor, Michigan. Monthly, \$10.00. (See index volume.)
3. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. American Psychological Association, 1333 Sixteenth St., NW, Washington, D. C. 20036. Six issues, \$10.00.
4. *Journal of Educational Research*. Dembar Publications, Box 1605, Madison, Wisconsin 53701. Nine issues, \$7.50.
5. *Journal of Experimental Education*. Dembar Publications, 1605, Madison, Wisconsin 53701. Quarterly, \$10.00.
6. *Reading Research Quarterly*. IRA, Box 695, Newark, Delaware 19711. \$5.00 (members) and \$6.00 (non-members).
7. *Review of Educational Research*. American Educational Research Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW, Washington, D. C. 20036. Five issues, \$7.00.

PROCEEDINGS (YEARBOOKS) OF READING CONFERENCES

Proceedings of the many annual conferences on reading are published regularly and provide an excellent source of current information on the subject. Titles of these yearbooks and additional information may be obtained on request, from the following:

International Reading Association Proceedings

IRA, Box 695, Newark, Delaware 19711

National Reading Conference Yearbook

Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Proceedings of the Conference on Reading

University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware

Proceedings of the College Reading Conference

Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, New York

Lehigh University Reading Conference Proceedings

Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

Temple University Reading Institute *Proceedings*
Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
University of Chicago Reading Conference *Proceedings*
University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

PROFESSIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Anderson, Irving H. and Walter F. Dearborn, *The Psychology of Teaching Reading*, New York—Ronald Press, 1952.
This text is recommended for experienced teachers of reading. It offers intelligent procedures for both developmental and remedial reading at the secondary level.
- Austin, Mary C. and Coleman Morrison, *The First R: Harvard Report on Reading in Elementary Schools*, New York—Macmillan, 1963.
An excellent report on the status of the field of reading. This book offers many recommendations which should be considered in instituting reading programs.
- Bush, Clifford L. and Mildred H. Hoebner, *Reading Education: Appraisal Techniques for School and Classroom*, New York—Ronald Press, 1961.
This book gives excellent ideas for secondary school reading programs along with suggestions for implementing a developmental reading program.
- Bamman, Henry A., Ursula Hogan, and Charles E. Greene, *Reading Instruction in the Secondary Schools*, New York—Longmans, Green and Company, 1961.
Specific techniques for use in the content areas are of value in this comprehensive treatment of the secondary reading program.
- Barbe, Walter, *Teaching Reading: Selected Materials*, New York—Oxford University Press, New York, 1965.
A collection of writings in the reading field, including some summaries of research is offered in this excellent reference.
- Blair, Glenn Meyers, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools*, New York—Macmillan Co., Revised Edition, 1956.
The author describes techniques to be used with older disabled readers.
- Bond, Guy L. and Miles A. Tinker, *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction*, New York—Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.
This text has practical application for inexperienced as well as experienced teachers in diagnostic and remedial techniques.
- Bullock, Harrison, *Helping the Non-Reading Pupil in the Secondary School*, New York—Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.
While clinical services and trained personnel are implicit in this discussion, many practical suggestions are offered to the secondary teacher who is confronted with a non-reader.
- Burton, Dwight L., *Literature Study in High School*, New York—Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964.
This text offers an excellent discussion on the teaching of reading skills in literature. In addition, the author suggests ways of developing taste in reading.

- Carpenter, Helen McCracken, *Skills in Social Studies*, Washington, D. C., National Council for the Social Studies, 1954, 1963.
This book emphasizes the need for the social studies teacher to teach the various skills that are critical in social studies.
- Curriculum Guide in Reading, Remedial Reading Grades 3-12*, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 1965.
An excellent handbook. This guide stresses both diagnostic and remedial procedures with many practical suggestions for teachers of reading.
- Dawson, Mildred A. and Henry A. Bamman, *Reading Instructions in Secondary Schools*, New York—Longmans, Green and Company, 1959.
The authors describe the various reading skills and many procedures in teaching reading. The text contains valuable suggestions in teaching reading in the content areas.
- Dawson, Mildred A., *Developing High School Reading Programs*, IRA, 1967.
This collection of articles was compiled to provide information about reading.
- Dechant, Emerald V., *Improving the Teaching of Reading*, New York—Prentice-Hall, 1964.
This text points up procedures for reading instruction with variations in techniques at the different levels of learning.
- Durkin, Dolores, *Phonics and the Teaching of Reading*, New York—Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962.
Instruction in sequential phonics skills is described in Dr. Durkin's excellent book.
- Fernald, Grace M., *Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects*, New York—McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1945.
This classic work offers descriptions of remedial procedures which are valuable for classroom and clinical instruction.
- Fries, Charles C., *Linguistics and Reading*, Holt, Rinehart, Mifflin and Company, 1963.
Dr. Fries describes the development of knowledge regarding linguistics and reading. In addition, he explains how linguistics can be useful in reading instruction.
- Gates, Arthur I., *What Research Says to the Teacher: Teaching Reading*, Washington, D. C., Department of Classroom Teachers Association and American Educational Research Association of the NEA, 1953.
Obviously oriented toward research, this text summarizes many studies in the field of remedial reading at the secondary level.
- Gray, W. S., *On Their Own in Reading*, Chicago—Scott, Foresman, 1960.
While this text is of particular value to the primary and elementary teachers of reading, it describes in comprehensive fashion the sequence and scope of word analysis skills that all reading teachers should know.
- Gray, William S. and Berneice Rogers, *Maturity in Reading: Its Nature and Appraisal*, Chicago—University of Chicago Press, 1956.
The secondary school's responsibilities in developing the critical reading skills are set forth in this text. Suggestions as to the handling of various abilities in any classrooms are offered, as well.

Harris, A. J., *How to Increase Reading Ability*, 4th Edition, New York—Longmans, Green and Co., 1961.

This text explores many facets of the field of reading including the nature of the reading process, readiness, and the reading skills. It explores the causes of reading failure and includes a discussion of remedial reading.

———, *Readings on Reading Instructions*, New York—McKay, 1963.

The selections, many by well known authorities, are oriented toward primary and elementary reading instruction. These readings encompass a number of areas of particular interest to teachers of beginning reading.

Heilman, Arthur W., *Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading*, Columbus, Ohio—Charles E. Merrill, 1961.

Much discussion is devoted to beginning reading instruction; however, Dr. Heilman offers detailed teaching procedures at higher instructional levels, and there is excellent information on many reading skills.

Karlin, Robert, *Teaching Reading in the High School*, Indianapolis—The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1964.

This text for secondary reading teachers presents theory and sound procedures in several areas.

La Brant, Lou, *An Evaluation of Free Reading in Grades Seven to Twelve*, Columbus, Ohio—The Ohio State University, 1939.

A well known study, Dr. LaBrant's more recent follow-up (1959) offers additional material which is of interest and value to teachers who want to encourage wide reading in their content areas.

McCallister, James M., *Remedial and Corrective Instruction in Reading: A Program for the Upper Grades and High School*, New York—Appleton-Century Company, 1936.

While this book was written over three decades ago, it is one of the available few which is concerned with adolescent reading problems and procedures. It contains practical suggestions for secondary teachers of reading.

McKim, Margaret, *Guiding Growth in Reading*, New York—Macmillan Co., 1955.

This text is mostly concerned with upper elementary reading practices, but the seventh and eighth grade teacher of reading and the content areas will find it helpful.

Metropolitan School Study Council, *Five Steps to Reading Success in Science, Social Studies and Mathematics* (Rev. Ed.), New York—Metropolitan School Study Council, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960.

The writers explain a five-step process to be used in reading in the content areas. The secondary teacher of large classes will find helpful material for handling reading problems.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Reading in the High School and College*, Forty-Seventh Yearbook, Part II, Chicago—The University of Chicago Press, 1948.

These authoritative selections deal largely with school reading programs, the content areas, and secondary and college students who have severe reading problems.

Penty, Ruth C., *Reading Ability and High School Dropouts*, New York—Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

The close relationship between reading ability and school dropouts is supported by research here. In addition, reading profiles of potential dropouts are presented. Suggestions are offered as to the improvement of the dropout's reading ability and attitude.

Robinson, H. Alan, and Sidney J. Rauch (Editors and Compilers), *Corrective Reading in the High School Classroom*, Perspectives in Reading No. 6, Newark, Delaware—International Reading Association, 1966.

Robinson, Helen M., *Materials for Reading*, Chicago—University of Chicago Press, 1957.

Many valuable materials at all levels are presented here; however, the teacher of reading needs to explore more recent publications because of the increased output of newer materials.

———, *Promoting Maximal Reading Growth Among Able Learners*, Chicago—University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Dr. Robinson describes reading practices for superior readers, and she describes several texts and their use with superior readers.

——— (ed.), *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities*, Chicago—University of Chicago Press, 1960.

These articles are devoted to developmental and remedial reading programs with emphasis upon several levels including the secondary level.

———, *Why Pupils Fail in Reading*, Chicago—University of Chicago Press, 1946.

Dr. Robinson's classic book, which is a culmination of years of work showed the value of the contribution of related fields to remedial reading. It also brought hope to severely disabled readers. It is a must for anyone who is concerned with a reading program.

Russell, David A., *Children's Thinking*, Boston—Ginn and Company, 1956.

Any teacher who teaches comprehension skills in reading should be familiar with the six thinking processes that Russell isolates and the major research which lead to his isolating these processes.

Schick, George B. and Bernard Schmidt, *A Guide for the Teaching of Reading*, Chicago—Psychotechnics, 1965.

This book gives good suggestions for the reading teacher.

Shepherd, David L., *Effective Reading in Science*, Evanston, Illinois—Row, Peterson and Company, 1960.

The author gives procedures for instruction in reading various materials in science texts, using current materials as models.

———, *Effective Reading in Social Studies*, Evanston Illinois—Row, Peterson and Company, 1960.

Sound procedures are given for reading instruction in the social studies area. It is evident that the author is concerned with critical reading.

Simpson, Elizabeth A., *Helping High School Students Read Better*, Chicago—Science Research Associates, 1954.

Many valuable suggestions for improving skills among secondary students are offered here.

Smith, Henry P. and Emerald V. Dechant, *Psychology in Teaching Reading*, New York—Prentice-Hall, 1961.

This text presents several broad areas of reading along with many summaries of pertinent research to support the various positions.

Smith, Nila B., *American Reading Instruction*, Newark, Delaware—International Reading Association, 1965.

This work should belong in any professional library of a teacher of reading. Dr. Smith gives a historical perspective to the field of reading in this highly interesting text.

Spache, George D., *The Art of Efficient Reading*, New York—The Macmillan Company, 1965.

Dr. Spache gives detailed and practical advice in his text. He devotes a good deal of space to instructional practices in the content areas.

Strang, Ruth and Dorothy Bracken, *Making Better Readers*, Boston—D. C. Heath & Co., 1957.

This book contains valuable suggestions for all high school teachers.

Strang, Ruth M., Constance M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler, *The Improvement of Reading* (Third Edition), New York—McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961.

Secondary teachers will find this book broad in scope and particularly helpful in the content areas and remedial reading.

Umans, Shelley, *New Trends in Teaching Reading*, New York—Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.

Several approaches to reading instruction are discussed here along with more recent innovations to reading instruction.

Weiss, Jerry M., *Reading in Secondary Schools*, New York—Odyssey Press, 1961.

This is a collection of writing on several aspects of teaching reading. Contemporary thinking relating to reading instruction in the content areas and literature is presented here.

Witty, Paul, *How to Become a Better Reader*, Chicago—Science Research Associates, 1962.

Dr. Witty presents in this volume helpful information in several areas of reading.

The International Reading Association

The International Reading Association (IRA) is a professional organization for individuals and for groups concerned with the improvement of reading. It was organized in its present form in 1956 by the uniting of several small remedial reading associations which had existed previously. The organization has grown rapidly in membership, in service, and in international contacts.

The annual conference sponsored by IRA is noted for its excellent lectures, demonstrations, and seminars on the vari-

ous phases of reading. The proceedings are published in book form and provide excellent resource materials. At the eleventh IRA conference held in Dallas, Texas, in May, 1966, it was announced that there are over 50,000 members from the United States, Canada, and many foreign countries.

The IRA publishes three magazines and numerous books and pamphlets to help improve reading instruction.

One may become a member of the International Reading Association by paying the annual dues of \$7.00, which includes a subscription to either *The Reading Teacher* or *The Journal of Reading*. (*The Journal of Reading* is recommended for high school teachers and *The Reading Teacher* for elementary teachers.) *The Reading Research Quarterly* is published four times each year for those who are interested in research and depth studies in the subject. For the magazines and the publications listed below, contact International Reading Association, Box 695, Newark, Delaware 19711.

Perspectives in Reading

College-Adult Reading Instruction
Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools
Children, Books, and Reading
Developing Study Skills
First Grade Reading Programs
Corrective Reading in the High School Classroom

Highlights of the Institutes

The Culturally Deprived Reader
Role of the Reading Consultant
Some Administrative Problems of Reading Clinics
Use of Theoretical Models in Research
Linguistics and Reading

Reading Aids

Conducting In-Service Reading Programs
Informal Reading Inventories
Reading for the Disadvantaged

Annotated Bibliographies

Individualized Reading
Reading in the Content Fields
Reading and the Kindergarten
Sources of Good Books for Poor Readers
Reading Clinics

Classroom Organization for Reading Instruction
Sources of Children's Literature
High School Reading Programs
Sources of Reading Research
Readability and Reading
Visual Perception and Reading

The first International Reading Association Congress was held in Paris in August, 1966, a truly international gathering of 500 participants with speakers from 22 countries. The far-reaching activities of this organization are an implementation of the following goals as listed in its constitution:

- A. To improve the quality of reading instruction at all levels by
 - 1. Encouraging the study of the reading process and its attendant problems;
 - 2. Stimulating and promoting research dealing with all aspects of reading;
 - 3. Publishing the results of pertinent and significant investigations and practices in reading;
 - 4. Acting as a clearing house for information relating to reading;
 - 5. Encouraging the development of high quality teacher education programs, both pre-service and in-service.
- B. To develop an awareness of the impact of reading upon our citizenry, and consequently to
 - 1. Encourage the development of worthwhile reading interests;
 - 2. Promote the formation of lifetime reading habits;
 - 3. Develop an appreciation of the value of reading in a democratic society.
- C. To sponsor conferences and meetings planned to implement the purposes of the Association.

Indiana State Council—IRA

The Indiana State Reading Council—IRA, affiliate of the International Reading Association, was organized in March, 1964, by representatives of the seven local councils in the state. (Since that time the number of local councils has increased rapidly until now there are more than thirty councils.)

It is a professional organization for individuals who are genuinely concerned with the improvement of reading programs and teaching procedures, both developmental and remedial, for children and adults, and with providing adequate guidance in all situations in which reading serves as a vital aid to learning.

The executive board and assembly of the Indiana State Council are the governing body. The governing body consists of the representatives from each local council, the state-elected officers, and the state chairman of the IRA.

The purposes of the council are these:

1. To act as a coordinating agency for local councils of Indiana.
2. To promote, encourage, and aid in the formation of new local councils.
3. To sponsor a state program, featuring outstanding talent in the reading field.
4. To sponsor conferences and meetings planned to implement the purposes of the local councils and the international association.
5. To promote mutual understanding and cooperative work among educators in the elementary grades, junior high, high school, special areas, college, and leadership positions.
6. To stimulate and promote research in developmental, creative, corrective, and remedial reading.
7. To study the various factors that influence progress in reading.
8. To publish the results of pertinent and significant investigations and practices.
9. To act as an intermediate clearing house for information relating to reading.
10. To disseminate knowledge helpful in the solution of problems related to reading.

In line with these general purposes the Indiana State Council—IRA in 1965 sponsored a conference including lectures and workshops for one day on the Ball State Campus in Muncie. The featured speakers were Dr. Donald Durrell and Dr. Leo Fay. The second annual conference was held in Fort Wayne in May, 1966. The principal speakers were Dr. Dorothy Bracken and Dr. Russell Stauffer. State meetings were held in

Lafayette in 1967 and in Bloomington in 1968. The 1969 annual meeting is to be at Culver Military Academy.

Local Councils

A local council may be formed by ten or more active IRA members. One becomes an active member by paying annual dues of \$7.00 which includes a subscription to either *The Reading Teacher* or *The Journal of Reading*. Some of the tasks related to the organization of a new council are the writing of a constitution, the election of officers, and the planning of a good program. Complete information on the formation of a council will be sent upon request. Write to:

International Reading Association
Box 695
Newark, Delaware 19711

Appendix A

Sequential Development of Basic Reading Skills*

Word Attack Skills

There are five major steps in learning word attack skills to unlock new words. The five levels are presented below in sequence to show the simple interrelation of skills and abilities at the lowest levels and how they become more complex as the child advances in reading. Notice that pupils begin structural analysis and syllabication in the third grade, but skills must be maintained and improved in more advanced grades through practice with increasingly difficult words:

In the first grade the following word attack skills are introduced:

1. Applying knowledge of single consonants in attacking new words.
2. Applying knowledge of single inflectional endings—*s*, *'s*, *ed*, and *ing*.
3. Using initial consonant or final consonant substitution in a known word form.
4. Understanding two-letter consonant symbols representing one sound—*sh*, *ch*, *th*, *wh*.

In the first half of the second grade the following word attack skills are introduced:

1. Applying knowledge of two-letter consonant symbols (consonant blends such as *cl*, *br*, *sp*, and consonant digraphs such as *wh*, *th*, *ch*, *sh*, *ng*, *ck*).
2. Identifying root words in inflected forms in which the final consonant is doubled before the ending.
3. Using visual clues to vowel sounds (*i* followed by *r*, *a* followed by *l*, *n*, *w*).

In the second half of the second grade the following word attack skills are introduced:

1. Applying his knowledge of vowel elements to attack any one-syllable word in which the vowel sound may be determined by associating the appropriate sounds or sound with the symbols *ow*, *ou*, *oi*, *oy*, *oo*.
2. Applying the general principles that aid in determining vowel sounds.
3. Identifying an inflected form in a known root in which the final *y* is changed to *i*, or the final *e* is dropped from before the ending.
4. Recognizing alphabetical sequence as readiness for developing dictionary skills.

**Curriculum Guide in Reading, Remedial Reading Grades 3-12*, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 1965. These materials are repeated here for the aid of the teacher of developmental reading who encounters problems of remedial nature in her students.

In the third grade pupils learn to apply their knowledge of:

1. Structural and phonetic analysis.
2. Principles of syllabication.
3. Principles that aid in determining vowel sounds and the use of *schwa* in unstressed vowel sounds.
4. Auditory perception of accent meaning, and visual clues to determine accent.
5. Identification of simple prefixes and suffixes as *re, dis, in, ful, ish, ness, ly, y*.
6. Attacking words formed by adding prefixes and/or suffixes to unknown root words of one or two syllables.
7. Developing dictionary skills—comprehending simple definitions of meaning.

From fourth grade through tenth grade pupils learn how to:

1. Attack words which are unfamiliar in sound, meaning, or form.
2. Use the dictionary to determine both sounds and meanings of words.

Authorities in the field of reading agree that a systematic sequence is necessary for teaching of auditory analysis, though there are some variations in suggested steps. For first grade children, and for children of other grade levels who need auditory analysis skills, the steps may be followed in order.

Students in remedial classes usually have weaknesses in several of the word attack skills. In such cases, the teacher will need to teach the unknown skills and to provide practice to help students remember them. The following list provides a systematic sequence for teaching and testing auditory analysis skills:

1. Single consonant sounds
(initial, final, and medial positions)
2. Consonant digraphs and blends
3. Short sounds of vowels
4. Long sounds of vowels
5. Final *e* rule
6. Double vowels
7. Diphthongs
8. Vowel followed by *r, l, and w*
9. Soft and hard *c* and *g*
10. Prefixes and suffixes
11. Numbers of syllables
12. Division into syllables
13. Open or closed syllables

Often upper grade students need to be taught the two sounds of *c*. Practice exercises using words from the assigned lesson will help pupils learn these simple rules and still give them practice in identifying new words. An example of such an exercise follows.

Teach pupils that a key to the sound of *c* is often in the letter which follows it. If *c* is followed by *e, i, or y*, the sound is usually *s*. When *c* is followed by other vowels or by consonants, the sound is usually *k*. Direct

them to copy the following words and skip a line under each, then write *s* or *k* under each letter *c* to show what sound the *c* has in that word.

- | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1. barbecue | 6. convenience | 11. intercept | 16. pacify |
| 2. enforce | 7. circulation | 12. unicycle | 17. occupancy |
| 3. molecule | 8. recur | 13. decisive | 18. concerted |
| 4. process | 9. presidency | 14. populace | 19. precipice |
| 5. recollect | 10. incorporate | 15. delicacy | 20. larceny |

REFERENCES: Gray, William S. *On Their Own in Reading*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1948.
Dolch, E. W. *Methods in Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1955.

Examples for the Development of Basic Reading Skills

Consonants

- Initial, medial, and final consonants:

walk	metal	cream
balk	medal	creak
- Consonant blends:

stove	prance	plant
sky	grief	sleeve
- Consonant digraphs:

phone	cherry	dish
thin	shut	telegraph
- The sounds of single consonants may vary:
s—silk, was
g—going, giant
c—has the sound of *s* when followed by *e* or *i*:
 cease, cider
c—has the sound of *k* when followed by *a*, *o*, or *u*:
 came, copy, cute
- When two consonants are combined, one of them may always be silent:
 gnat, knife, pneumonia, talk
 Occasionally, both consonants may be silent:
 brought, through, thought
- Some sounds are represented by many different symbols:
 graduate, jump, wedge, magic
- When a double consonant appears, one of the consonants is silent:
 letter, willow, occasion

Vowels

- If the only vowel in a word or syllable is at the beginning or in the middle, the vowel letter usually has the short sound.

am	man	up	rob ber
it	list	clock	bas ket
egg	stump	myth	sim ple
ox	crept	symbol	lum ber

2. If the only vowel in a word or syllable is the last letter of the word or syllable, the vowel usually has the long sound.

go	ta ble	bu gle	mo tel
sky	he ro	ny lon	na vy

3. If a vowel in a syllable is followed by a consonant and a final *e*, the first vowel is usually long and the final *e* is silent.

huge	stove	in vite	re fuse
cane	shine	in vade	ex treme
style	scene	ex plode	re type

4. If the only vowel in a word or syllable is followed by *r*, the sound of the vowel is controlled by the *r*.

car	her	bird	horn	tur key
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5. When two vowels come together in a word or syllable, the first vowel is usually long and the second vowel is silent.

main	toad	steam	play	sleep	hoe
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Syllabication

- Rule 1.* If the first vowel letter is followed by two consonants, the first syllable usually ends with the first of the two consonants.

mitten	mit ten	butter	_____	candy	_____
ladder	_____	summer	_____	flutter	_____
dinner	_____	winter	_____	collar	_____
rabbit	_____	fasten	_____	robber	_____
lesson	_____	mountain	_____	finger	_____
		complain	_____	hectic	_____

Notice that the vowel sound in the first syllable of each word is _____.

- Rule 2.* If the first vowel sound in a word is followed by a single consonant, that consonant usually begins the second syllable.

pupil	pu pil	bacon	_____	detour	_____
Mary	_____	season	_____	paper	_____
tiger	_____	tiny	_____	table	_____
maple	_____	baby	_____	shiny	_____

Notice that the vowel sound in the first syllable of each word is _____.

- Rule 3.* If the last syllable of a word ends in *le*, the consonant preceding the *le* usually begins the last syllable.

apple	ap ple	middle	_____	puzzle	_____
maple	_____	simple	_____	syllable	_____
jingle	_____	needle	_____	gobble	_____
table	_____	sizzle	_____	tumble	_____

Accent

1. In words which may be divided into two syllables, the accent usually is placed on the first syllable.

hap'-py	slo'-gan
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2. Endings *tion* and *sion* added to a word indicate that the accent should fall on the next to last syllable.
in-oc-u-la'-tion re-ces'-sion
3. Usually, the root of a word is accented.
in-duce'-ment in-del'-i-ble
4. Bi-syllable or tri-syllable words are usually accented on the first syllable. An exception to this is when a prefix is added to the root or stem.
la'-dy lac'-quer Exceptions: pre-sume' re-volt'
5. Words ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel with the accent on the last syllable may have a suffix beginning with a vowel added—provided the final consonant of the root word is doubled.
ad-mit'-tance in-curred'

Structural Analysis

1. When the root words end in a final *e*, the *e* is usually dropped before an ending that begins with a vowel:
coming, raked, shining, stylish (the *e* has been dropped and the ending has been added.)
When root words end in *ce* or *ge*, the *e* is retained when an ending beginning with *a* or *o* is added:
peaceable, changeable, advantageous, courageous
2. If a syllable or root word ends in a single consonant preceded by a vowel, the consonant may be doubled when an ending is added:
stopped, running, whipped, fanning
NOTE: This principle applies only if the enlarged word is accented on the final syllable: benefit, benefited
3. Words ending in *f* or *fe* usually form their plurals by changing the *f* to a *v* and adding the plural endings:
knives, wolves, scarves
4. When a word ends with *y*, preceded by a consonant, the *y* is usually changed to an *i* before an ending is added:
ladies, cried, emptied
If the *y* is preceded by a vowel, there is no change in the root word when an ending is added:
chimneys, allayed, stayed
5. Compound words are made up of two words put together to make one word:
twosome, fireplace, forenoon
6. Words containing roots, prefixes, and suffixes may often be recognized after known parts are identified:
helper, distasteful, attractive, assignment
7. The teacher may help students identify parts of the words by providing such exercises as the following:
Present a Latin root, such as "dent" meaning "tooth." List other words derived from this root, such as:
dentist dental
denture indention
dentifrice indentured

Have the pupils correctly fill the blanks in such sentences as the following with one of the above words:

Grandfather's _____ cause him much discomfort.
Pretty girls appear in most _____ advertisements.

8. Students may select a root form and build a "family" of words, substituting or adding various prefixes and suffixes. Call attention to the fact that the meaning of the root form *does not change*:

evoke	vociferous
invoke	provoke
vocal	avocation
vocabulary	vocation
voice	convocation

9. Students should learn how to select a derived form, examine its components, and note the meaning of each part. Students may name other words which contain the components:

viewing	dictaphone
preview	telephone
predict	telegraph
dictate	graphics

10. Students may separate roots, prefixes, and suffixes in the following exercises:

	Root Word	Prefix	Suffix
unhappily	happy	un	ly
promptly	_____	_____	_____
unhurried	_____	_____	_____
painful	_____	_____	_____
impatiently	_____	_____	_____
loudly	_____	_____	_____
disagree	_____	_____	_____
unpacking	_____	_____	_____
impolite	_____	_____	_____
clowning	_____	_____	_____
uneaten	_____	_____	_____

Using Context Clues

Pupils must be taught that there is a wide variety of things to observe in unlocking meaning through context clues. They must be given directed lessons to provide practice in context analysis. The material itself may contain the following types of context clues that explain the new terms:

1. *Definitions* are the most obvious context clues and may often be located by the words *means* or *is*. For example:

A dolphin is a mammal that spends its entire life in water.
Crustacean means crusted animals and they have stiff outer coverings.

2. *Restatements* may use different words to say the same thing. To call attention to such restatements, use may be made of such signal words as *or*, *in other words*, *that is to say*, or *that is*. For example:

Every insect has two antennae, or feelers, on its head.

3. *Experience* may relate the new word to a familiar word in the sentence. For example:

In Tokyo we saw men pulling passengers in rickshaws.
The fire in the fireplace illuminated the dark room.

4. *Comparison* or *Contrast* may liken or contrast the unknown with something known. For example:

Eskimos have slanting eyes like those of the Chinese.
Contrast or opposites may often be identified by such signal words as *but*, *on the contrary*, *unlike*, *in contrast*, *relief* (when used to mean "stood out from the rest"), and *once*. For example:
John's quietness was in sharp contrast to Jim's volubility.

5. *Synonyms* for the unknown word may be provided. The structure of the sentence is such that, where we would expect the unknown word to be repeated, the author gives us a synonym. For example:

When Jim heard the good news he was *elated*. He was *glad* his uncle was coming to visit.

6. *Familiar Expression* or *Language Experience* clues require knowledge of common language patterns and of everyday expressions. In this case, however, a strange word is substituted for one of the familiar ones.

No matter what word is substituted, the meaning will be clear. For example:

I don't dig you. Don't be a square.

7. *Summary* of the various ideas in the material may provide clues to the unknown word. One sentence may not be enough, but as the story develops, the meaning of the unknown word may emerge. For example:

Being an itinerate preacher, my grandfather travelled through all parts of the state.

8. *Reflection of a Mood or Situation* may provide a situation or establish a mood or tone that is reflected by the unknown word. For example:

The day was dull with black clouds overhead. This dreary landscape cast a spell of melancholy over him.

The teacher himself must become adept in recognizing different clues in order to provide guidance for pupils. An example of each type of clue might be selected from class materials and combined into a test to see what help pupils need. The teacher, while reading a story, may stop at a point to have the pupils infer the next word by using context clues.

When pupils meet hard words in their lessons, they can bring them in context to class for discussion and tell what part of the sentence helped them infer the meaning.

Witty and Grotberg in *Developing Your Vocabulary*, p. 39, suggest these four techniques for applying clues to learning new words from context:

1. Look for definitions and examples.
2. Look for familiar key words.

3. Look for an opposite word.
4. Follow the logic of the passage.

Not all of these techniques work equally well with different contexts. Even in a short passage you would probably need to vary the techniques, using the ones that fit the context.

Pupils should develop the habit of using dictionaries to check their inferences and get additional meanings for unfamiliar words.

REFERENCES:

- McCullough, Constance. "Context Aids in Reading." pp. 225-229. *The Reading Teacher*, April, 1958.
- Witty, Paul, and Grothberg. *Developing Your Vocabulary*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960.

Getting Meaning from Context

Read each of the following sentences carefully to understand the meaning of the underlined word. Among the four words or expressions below the sentence, find one that means nearly the same as the underlined word and draw a circle around it.

1. They tethered the pigs so they would not wander away.
branded put in a pen fastened with a rope watched
2. When the rest of the party went in search of food, water, and shelter, Kit said, "I, too, will search for provender."
a safe place a stream of fresh water wild game provisions
3. Kit had to wedge himself into the bow of the loaded boat.
jump help stand crowd
4. There was a story that sea monsters lurked near the islands.
could not live were hunted lay in hiding hibernated
5. The family anxiously watched the heaving sea.
glistening blue rising and falling vanishing
6. The sun, previously a red blur above the horizon, had disappeared entirely now.
skyline clouds road bridge
7. During the next hours, the men worked desperately to extinguish the forest fire.
gather watch put out wear
8. He annoyed people several times with his trick, until finally they became angry.
pleased helped bothered learned
9. The boy was concerned because his sheep were in danger.
pleased listed voted worried
10. The polite young girl is a model of decorum in class.
related proper behavior hope usual

Appendix B

Classical Roots, Prefixes, and Suffixes

In recent years there has been much discussion in the literature concerning the teaching of the meaning of our common Greek and Latin prefixes and suffixes as well as the Greek and Latin roots.

Inasmuch as a great quantity of the English vocabulary comes from these languages it seems desirable to teach directly the meanings of the most common ones. Through these our students will be able to unlock the meanings of many words.

The following are listed as those advisable for students in the secondary school to learn.

LATIN ROOTS

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
annus	year	annual
aud		audience
audit	hear	auditory auditorium
capit	head	capital
ceed cede	go	succeed secede
cent	one hundred	century centurion
cept cap cip	take	capivate capture principal principle
cide	kill	suicide
clud clus	shut	inclusion include
cred	belief	credit incredible creed
dent	tooth	dental indentation indentured
dict dic	say tell	contradict

LATIN ROOTS—Continued

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
duct duc	lead take	product conductor
fac fic	to do, make	factory fiction fashion
fid	faith	fidelity
fin	end limit	finish final
flu	flow	fluid fluent
fort	strong	fortified
grat grac	pleasing thankful	gratitude gracious
gress	step	congress regress
ject	throw	eject reject
junct jug	join yoke	junction subjugate
juris jus	law	jury justice jurisdiction
leg lex	law	legislature
magna mag	great	magnify
mal	bad evil	malignant
manu mani	hand	manufacture manual
materia	timber matter	material
mit mis	send (let go)	admit admission
mort	death	mortician mortified
observ	attend to	observe

LATIN ROOTS—Continued

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
ora	speech prayer	oral oratory
pand	spread	expand
ped	foot	pedal pedestrian
pend pens	hand	depend compensation
pleni	full	plenty
plex pil ply	fold, bend twist, interweave	complex compile comply plywood
port	carry	import
posse poss pote pose	able, power	posses potential dispose
prim prin	first	primary principle
rect	right	rectify correct
reg rex	law king	regulate
rid	laugh	ridicule
rupt	break	interrupt
scrip script	write	subscription scribble
sect	our	section dissection
separ	apart to part from	separate
solv	loosen	solvent
somo some	body	somatic somite
spat spac	space	spatial spacious

LATIN ROOTS—Continued

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
spec	look at	spectacle
spect		
spic		conspicuous
sta	stand (status)	
stat		consistent
sist		constant
still (are)	drop	distill
tain	have hold	detain
ten		contain
tin		
temper	temper	temperature
tend	stretch	extend
tens		tendon
tent		extent
tort	twist	torture
		distort
		tortoise
tract	draw	contract
		attraction
vacca	cow	vaccine
ven	come	ventilate
vent		invent
vert	turn change	invert
vers		
vid	see	visualize
vis		video
		vision
viv	live	vivid
vit		revive
voc	voice call	vocal
vok		
volv	to turn around	revolve

GREEK ROOTS

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
auto	self	automatic
arthro	joint	arthritis

GREEK ROOTS—Continued

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
bio	life	biotype biology biography
chara	engraving	character
chloro	green	chlorophyll
chrono	time	chronicle chronological
chrome	color	chromate
derm	skin, covering	ectoderm
dia	through across	diaper diagonal
graph	write	graphic
hemo	blood	hemoglobin hemorrhage
homo	same	homology homonym
hydro	water	hydrant hydroelectric
logos logo log	word reason	logical
mega	great	megaphone
meter (metron)	measure	diameter
micro	very little	microscopic
mono mon	one	monogram monoplane
ology	a study	zoology
organ	tool	organ organization organology
pan	all	panorama Pan-American
pathy	feeling	sympathy
phil	love	philosophical

GREEK ROOTS—Continued

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
phon phono	sound	phonograph
phos phot photo	light	phosphorous photography
physio phys	nature	physical
polis poli pol	city	Indianapolis politics
pract	do	practice
pseudo	false	pseudonym
scope	look, see (an instrument for seeing)	telescope
syn sys	together	synonym system
tele	far	telephone
thermo	heat	thermos thermometer

PREFIXES

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
a- *	to	ashore
ad- *al- ap- an- at- ar- ac- as- ag-	toward	
ab-*	from away	abduct
ambi-	both	ambidextrous
amphi-	on both sides (around)	amphitheater
ante-	before	antebellum
anti-	against	antiseptic

* Common prefixes taught in sixth grade or below.

PREFIXES—Continued

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
apo-	away from from	apology
auto	self	automobile
be-*	about	befriend
bi-	two	bisect
cata-	down complete according	cataract
circum-	around	circumnavigate
com-*	together	compute
con- co-	with	confirm
col- cor-		collect correct
contra-	against	contradict
de-*	from down away from apart	depress deport
di-	twice two	digraph
dia	through around	diameter
dis	not	dispute
dis- di- dif-	apart from	digress dilate diffuse
dys-	bad with difficulty	dyspepsia
ecto	on either side	ectoderm
en-*	in	enactment
im- used before em- p, b, m		improbable embarrass
equi-	equal	equidistant

* Common prefixes taught in sixth grade or below.

PREFIXES—Continued

endo-	within	endoplasm
epi-	upon, on, beside, among	epigraph epilog
eu	good advantageous	eulogy
ex-* e- (before l, m, n, b, d, g, r, v) ef- (before f)	out of out from formerly	extract egress
exo-	outside	exothermic
for-	thoroughly away off	forbid forget
fore-	before	forenoon
hemi- (gr)	half	hemisphere
hyper-	over above excessive	hypercritical
hypo-	under below deficient	hypodermic
in-* il- im- before b, p, ir- m, l, r	not opposite contrary	inconsistent illegal immaterial irregular
in-*	in into	indent
infra-	below	infrared
inter-	between among	international
intra- intro-	inside	intramural introduce
meso-	middle	mesoderm
meta-	beyond change	metamorphosis
mis-	not wrong (bad)	mistake misconduct

* Common prefixes taught in sixth grade or below.

PREFIXES—Continued

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
mon-	one	monochrome
mono-	alone	monomial
non-	not	nonconductor
neo-	new	neoclassic
ob-	against	opposite
oc-		
of-		object
op-		
omni-	all	omnipresence
para	by the side of	paragraph
per	through	persist
peri-	around	periscope perimeter
post-	after	postscript
pre-*	before	prefix
pro-*	for onward, forward in favor of	profound progress program prognathous
re-*	again back	resettle
retro-	backward behind	retroactive
se-	aside	secede
semi-* (L)	half	semicircle
sub-	under	substandard
su-	sum-	suspect summon
suc-	sup-	success support
suf-	sur-	suffer surreptitious
sug-	sus-	suggest suspend
super-	above	supervise
sur-		surcharge
tetra-	four	tetragon

* Common prefixes taught in sixth grade or below.

PREFIXES—Continued

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example</i>
trans- tran- tra-	across beyond through	transient transcribe traverse
tri-	three	triangle
twi-	two	twilight
un-	not	undecided

SUFFIXES

<i>Suffix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Used for</i>	<i>Example</i>
-able* -ble -ible	capable of being able to be	adjective	capable
-al*	pertaining to act of	adjective noun	personal pedal
an -ana ian	pertaining to	noun	Americana
-age	act or process result- ing from action	noun	passage marriage
-ance -ence	quality state of being related to	noun	brilliance
-ant* -ent	one who being	noun adjective	participant brilliant
-ar	nature of	adjective	popular
-ard	state of	noun	wizard
-ary	belonging to connected with	adjective	notary apiary
-ate	office or function	verb, noun, adjective	syndicate
-ably -bly -ibly	able to be	adverb	capably
-cy	state quality rank	noun	dependency democracy

* Common suffixes taught sixth grade or below.

SUFFIXES—Continued

<i>Suffix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Used for</i>	<i>Example</i>
-ee	one who is object of action	noun	nominee
-en	made of to make	adjective verb	golden fasten
-er*	degree	adjective (comparative)	larger
-er* -or	action or a process something that does something	noun	teacher sailor
-et -let	little one who	noun	ringlet poet
-ful*	full, complete	adjective	beautiful
-fully*	in manner of like	adverb adjective	wonderfully
-fy	to make	verb	satisfy amplify
-hood	state of	noun	childhood
-ic -ics	pertaining to	adjective	patriotic
-il -ile	suited for capable of	adjective	percentile civil
-in -ine	of the nature	adjective	canine feminine
-ing	noun made from verb	noun	reading
-ish	like a (characteristic of)	adjective	childish
-ism	manner or state of	noun	criticism
-ion* -tion* -sion -cion	act of state of result of	noun	insertion
-ist	one who does one who follows	noun	dramatist
-ity*	a condition or state	noun	personality

* Common suffixes taught sixth grade or below.

SUFFIXES—Continued

<i>Suffix</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Used for</i>	<i>Example</i>
-ive -tive -sive -cive	having quality	adjective	attractive
-ize -ise	to make like, effect with	adjective	pulverize
-ly*	in manner of like	adverb adjective	probably lovely
-man	relating to a human	noun	policeman
-ment*	action result of process of action state or quality	noun	assignment attainment contentment
-ious* -ious -eous -ose -uous	full of like state of	adjective	contagious nauseous conspicuous
-some	pertaining to	adjective	winsome
-tial -sial -cial -ial	pertaining to	adjective	partial spacial
-tude	state condition	noun	gratitude
-ty*	condition	adjective	loyalty
-ure	denoting action state result	noun	overture
-ward	turning to in direction of	adjective adverb	toward northward outward
-wright	doer worker	noun	millwright
-y	characterized by	noun	pasty

* Common suffixes taught sixth grade or below.

Appendix C

Materials and Equipment

Reading Texts and Workbooks

The selection of materials to use to improve reading skills and to develop lifetime reading habits is an important part of the educator's task. Publishers suggest reading levels but a teacher should select materials in view of the needs, the interests and the abilities of the students who will use them. It is important that texts used in the English classroom be different from the ones allotted to reading laboratories so that students have access to new, interesting materials. The following list is not inclusive and teachers should be alert to find new materials to fit specific needs.

Users of this Guide should refer to the current State adoption list for State-adopted textbook recommendations.

Allyn and Bacon

Sheldon, William. Basic Reading Series, 1957. *High Trails*—Grade 7, *Widening Views*—Grade 8. These developmental reading texts, accompanying workbooks and teachers' manuals provide good instruction and practice in the junior high school reading skills.

Horn, Gunnar and Catherine J. Sullivan. *The Cavalcade Series*, 1963. An anthology at each grade level from grade nine through twelve designed to provide advanced reading and literary skills. Accompanying workbooks and teachers' manuals provide good supplementary activities.

American Book Co.

Leavell, Caughran. *Reading with Purpose*, 1962, Grade 7. *Reading with Significance*, Grade 8. Each text starts at a lower reading level and is designed to teach reading skills to help the student read up to the grade level at the end of the book.

Caughran, Mountain. *High School Reading*, Books I and II, 1962. Grades 9 through 12. These texts contain literature selections with units emphasizing aspects of reading and are very useful for "slower" English classes. *Reading Skillbooks*, Books I and II, 1962. These workbooks may be used to accompany the text for additional practice or used separately with developmental reading classes to teach the skills.

- Bailey and Leavell. *Worlds of Literature Series*, 1963. These texts for each grade from 7 through 12 are literature anthologies with emphasis on special skills pertinent to literary types and literary aspects of reading. Workbooks and teachers' manuals provide additional aids for individualizing instruction.
- Barnell-Loft Boning, Richard. *Specific Skills Series*, 1964. The title of these workbooks, *Using the Context, Working with Sounds, Getting the Facts, Locating the Answer, Following Directions*, explain their purposes. Books A, B, C, are for grades 1, 2, 3. Books D, E, F, are for grades 4, 5, 6, respectively and are useful with secondary students lacking in specific skills.
- Benefic Press This company specializes in materials of high interest but low reading level for the adolescent student. Many titles are available with teachers' guides.
- Burgess Miller, Lyle L. *Developing Reading Efficiency*, 1965. This workbook stresses learning by doing. It contains reading drills, vocabulary lists, and other tools for improving reading rate and efficiency in grades seven through ten. The first part of the book contains mechanical exercises (word recognition, phrase reading, recognizing synonyms, same-different sentence matching). The second part of the book contains sustained reading exercises of varying lengths.
- Miller, Lyle L. *Maintaining Reading Efficiency*, 1966. This collection of timed reading exercises have been standardized and arranged for easy recognition of growth in reading skill for high school students and adults. The selections allow for diagnostic work with students whose problem is retention. Features include: progress charts to increase student motivation; reading tests for pre- and post-testing rate, comprehension and efficiency; usefulness for adult education classes.
- Bobbs-Merrill Smith, et al. *Best of Children's Literature Series*, 1965. *Voyages in Reading*—Grade 7, *Challenges in Reading*—Grade 8. Literary appreciation and reading skill development are skillfully woven around each selection. Activities and questions follow each selection. Suggestions for teachers furnish information and

- reading helps. Material is interesting and the format attractive.
- Orr, et al. *The Scribner-Bobbs-Merrill Reading Today Series*, 1957. Three books for grades seven, eight and nine provide a developmental program in literature and reading. Teachers' manuals are available for each.
- Cambridge University Press
- Fry. *Reading Faster*, 1963. This paperbound workbook is designed to improve speed and comprehension. Each timed reading passage is followed by ten multiple-choice comprehension questions. The passages have been selected from material simplified to the 2000 vocabulary level.
- Columbia University
- Gates Peardon *Practice Exercises in Reading* booklets are designed as supplementary material. Books V and VI are useful with poor readers in junior high. The skills emphasized are: Type A—General Significance, Type B—Predicting Outcomes, Type C—Understanding Directions, Type D—Noting Details.
- McCall-Crabb *Standard Test Lessons in Reading*, 1961. Each booklet contains seventy-eight lessons each followed by multiple-choice questions to improve speed and comprehension. Books and grade levels are: Book A, 2-4; Book B, 3-5; Book C, 4-6; Book D, 5-7; Book E, 7-12. Students like this material and are highly motivated by the scoring and charting of their grade level.
- McCall-Smith. *Test Lessons in Reading-Reasoning*, 1964. This booklet contains seventy-eight lessons for the able high school upper-classmen. Motivation provided in scoring and charts.
- Strang *Study Type of Reading Exercises for Secondary Schools*, 1956. This booklet with twenty exercises explains aspects of the reading process and provides practice in essential reading skills.
- Continental Press
- Eichler, Snyder. *Phonics Series. A Flight Through Wordland*. Grade 4. Thirty lessons dealing with consonant digraphs and blends, long and short vowels, dictionary work, diacritical markings, syllables, prefixes, and suffixes are available for duplication.
- Through Space to Wordland*. Grade 5. Thirty lessons available for duplication review and

practice in the dictionary, word recognition, and word analysis skills. Either of the above would be an extremely valuable type of material for reading in grades seven or eight. The duplicating process allows the teacher to most purposefully use each exercise.

Maney. *Reading-Thinking Skills Program*, 1963. These pre-printed master carbon units for any duplicator are an excellent and inexpensive way to obtain additional materials for class and individual work. They are most suitable in a junior high school reading program. The exercises are concerned with word meaning, relationships, evaluation, inference, generalization, selection and organization. Useful titles are at the 4-1, 4-2, 5-1, 5-2, 6-1, 6-2 levels. There are twenty-four exercises at each level. The 6-1 and 6-2 levels practice refining word meaning, evaluating content, inferring from context, perceiving relationships, developing imagery and organizing ideas.

Developmental Reading Distributors

Miller. *Developing Reading Efficiency*, 1962. This paperbound manual of exercises is designed to help secondary students increase eye span, reduce eye-fixation time and increase speed and comprehension.

Follett

Basic Learning Series. Materials in this series are designed for the slow learner and the potential drop-out. Herber. *Learning Your Language*, 1964. The lessons in each of the three books are highly structured to enable the student to be ready to read the basic story. Reading skills appropriate to the selection are practiced.

Fincher, Ethel; Ross, Frank; Reynolds, Shirley; Edward Simpkins. *Success in Language*, 1964. This is divided into eight units, each in an individual paper worktext. Reading skills are built into these guidance-oriented materials.

Botel Interesting Reading Series, 1958. These hardbound books are designed to provide independent reading at an elementary level for secondary students. Representative titles include *Ten Great Moments in Sports*, *Buried Gold* and *First Men in Space*.

Turner, Richard. *Livingstone Reading Series*, 1958. These paperback workbooks are designed for secondary use but written on an upper

elementary level. Titles in the series include *The Person You Are*, *The Money You Spend* and *The Friends You Make*. Each workbook consists of twenty-three short episodes concerning the characters developed within the book. Activities follow each selection. There is a test at the end of each book.

Riessman and Dawkins. *Play It Cool*, 1967. This paperbound book was designed for the ninth grade student in disadvantaged areas. It is hoped that the reluctant learner will become interested in the "hip" language and "hictionary." The teachers' manual contains good suggestions. This book is not for every student but fits the needs of some classes.

Ginn

Russell, et al. The Ginn Basic Reading Program, 100 Edition, 1966. *Discovery Through Reading—Grade 7*, *Exploration Through Reading—Grade 8*, *Achievement Through Reading—Grade 9*. These books contain a sequentially developed program of reading instruction. Workbooks, workbook answer keys, teachers' manuals, independent study activities and unit tests are available with each text. Creative listening is provided for on the accompanying records.

Russell, et al., 1963-64. *Discovery Through Reading*, Grade 7; *Exploration Through Reading*, Grade 8; *Achievement Through Reading*, Grade 9. Texts are intended for use in a junior high school developmental reading program. Each unit in seventh and eighth grade books are divided into two parts. The first part contains literature selections with exercises to improve the skills needed for reading literature. The second part of each unit entitled "Building Reading Power" contains mostly factual articles with exercises geared toward improvement of basic reading and study skills. "The Open Bookshelf" at the end of each unit has some fine suggestions for independent reading.

Globe

Gainsburg, Joseph C., Spector, Samuel I. *Better Reading*, 3rd Edition, 1962. Hardbound text provides extensive and intensive work in essential reading skills. Exercises within each chapter are progressively difficult. The exercises are interestingly varied.

Feigenbaum, Lawrence H. *Effective Reading*, 1953. Hardbound text. Remedial or reading improvement—junior high school, possibly through grade ten. Provides extensive and valuable reading practice. Divided into three parts: Reading to Learn, Reading for Social Living, Reading Tests, Drills and Word Games. Feigenbaum, Lawrence H. *Successful Reading*, 1963. This hardbook text is similar to *Effective Reading*. A word count is provided to check rate.

Globe Adapted Classics. Available in hardbound and paperback editions. Outstanding titles from literature adapted to reading levels from grades 3-8. Not the best way to read a classic but the series provides interesting supplementary reading and the introduction to "good" literature at easy readability levels. The literary style of the work is generally preserved.

Potter, Robert R., Robinson, H. Alan. *Myths and Folk Tales Around the World*, 1963. Hardbound collection. Many uses, English or reading classes or individuals from grades seven through twelve. Reading level of selections is grade 3-4. Mature format. Content is varied, including stories from Greece, Rome, Northern Europe, Eastern Europe, East Africa and America. Various kinds of follow-up questions check comprehension. Necessary vocabulary precedes each story. A teacher's manual is available with teaching suggestions and answers to text questions.

Gershenfeld, Howard, Burton, Ardis. *Stories for Teen-Agers, Book A*, 1963. Hardbound collection of short stories adapted to reading level 3-4. Stories organized around topics such as humor, courage, science fiction and adolescent problems. Accompanying each story are objective comprehension checks and discussion questions. Teacher's guide is available. Good supplementary material but appeal would be pupil interest rather than literary value of the selections. Additional collections similar to this are *Stories for Teen-Agers, Books I, II* and *Stories for Today's Youth, Book I*. The former is on grade level 5-6 and the latter on reading level 4-5.

Hammond

Hardwick, H. C. *Words Are Important Series*, 1959. These paper booklets for grade seven

Harcourt, Brace,
and World

through twelve provide good vocabulary practice to supplement the instruction given in context.

Minter, Catherine. *Words and What They Do To You*. This junior high text presents basic principles and asks students to apply them in experiments and questions. This material could be used efficiently with older students who need this help.

Early, et al. *Adventures in Literature—Classic Series*, 1968. These anthologies for grades seven through twelve contain selections chosen on the basis of social maturity of the students as they deal with the human values of literature. Some provision for the teaching of related reading skills are included in the student's texts, teacher's manuals, keys, exercise books and reading tests.

Roberts, Clyde. *Word Attack: A Way to Better Reading*, 1956. Exercises provide training in association of the printed symbol with the sound; utilization of various word clues; analysis of prefixes, suffixes, and word roots; development of dictionary skills. Maturely written so older pupils need not be offended. Each teacher needs at least one copy.

Schumacher, Melba, George B. Schick and Bernard Schmidt. *Design for Good Reading, Levels I and II*, 1962. Teacher's manual and four progress tests per level are included. These workbooks were intended for high school developmental reading material in English classes or in the reading laboratory. They provide excellent practice to improve rate, comprehension and vocabulary. Their stories are also on film, available from Psychotechnics.

Schweitzer and Lee. *Harbrace Vocabulary Workshop*, 1957. Workbook geared to advanced high school or college preparatory groups. Includes the following topics, each in depth—dictionary usage, spelling, pronunciation, capitalization, native and borrowed words, prefixes, roots, suffixes, parts of speech, definition and meaning similarities and differences in meaning, changes in meaning, figures of speech and deriving meaning from context.

Smith, Donald. *Learning to Learn*, 1961. Paperbound training workbook most suitable for college reading improvement situation. May be

used independently as a supplement to class work. There are five major sections. The first deals with individual reading problems. Part II provides eight individual lessons all covering step by step the SQ3R method. The third part discusses in four lessons, perception, comprehension, vocabulary and critical reading. The material here is a too-brief presentation of each facet. Part IV returns to SQ3R and in four excellent lessons applies the technique to different subject areas. The last section contains eight timed readings.

Harper & Row

Strand 1—Developmental reading—Grade 7, *Searchlights on Literature*; Grade 8, *Compass Points in Literature*. Strand 2—Reading in the Subject-matter areas—Grade 7, *From Pilots to Plastics*; Grade 8, *From Stars to Sculpture*. The grades 7 and 8 materials are a recent addition to the Harper and Row reading program.

Heath

Strang, et al. *Teen-Age Tales*, 1964. Books A-C are written at third and fourth grade level. Books I-VI are written at fourth to sixth grade levels. Short stories of fiction and non-fiction are highly interesting to teenagers. Questions for each selection are in the book. These excellent books may be used for instruction or for recreational reading, depending on the needs of the students.

McDonald, et al. *Success in Reading*, 1967. Books 1 and 2 for grade 7. Books 3 and 4 for grade 8. Odd numbered books teach skills, the other two provide practice and extension of skills.

Witty, et al. *Reading Roundup Books I, II and III*, 1958. These basic or supplementary texts are useful in reading or English classes. Material is theme-centered. Comprehension and vocabulary questions are provided. The accompanying teacher's manuals, workbooks and test booklets provide excellent material to improve reading skills.

Holt, Rinehart,
and Winston

Miller. *Word Wealth Junior*, 1962. This vocabulary text for junior high school students includes the study of vocabulary, spelling, word elements and word building. *Word Wealth*, 1967. This is a companion text for high school students. Good exercises follow the instruction.

Murphy, George and Helen Rand. *Let's Read*, 1962. This four-book series of developmental readers for grades 7 through 12 provides exercises to extend reading skills. A teacher's manual is included with the text.

Wagenheim, et al. *Our Reading Heritage*, 1963. This six-book series for grades seven through twelve emphasizes literary appreciation and reading improvement. Teachers' manuals are provided.

Wood, Evelyn and Marjorie Barrows. *Reading Skills*, 1958. The text with accompanying teacher's manual, student tests, and shutter cards is designed to help poor junior high school readers correct poor habits and improve vocabulary rate and comprehension skills.

Houghton

Chase, et al. *Houghton Mifflin Literature Series*, 1968. This series is designed to provide a flexible literature program for grades nine through twelve. Study aids are built into the program. Each of the four texts is accompanied by a teacher's annotated edition, a teacher's handbook, student progress tests, and an album of literary recordings.

Jewett, et al. *Reading for Enjoyment Series*. This three-book series is designed to encourage readers in grades seven, eight and nine to increase reading skills and broaden literary tastes. Reading skills are also emphasized in the reading practice and review test booklets and in the teacher's guide.

Laidlaw

Brewerton, et al. *New Horizons Through Reading and Literature*. This three-book series for grades seven, eight and nine is designed for developmental reading in English or in reading classes. Exercises following the reading selections develop skills. The teacher's editions offer additional suggestions.

Neal, Elma A. and Inez Foster. *Study Exercises for Developing Reading Skills*, 1963. These inexpensive paper workbooks provide short selections followed by exercises to develop junior high reading skills. Their mature appearance and interesting topics make them valuable with many types of students. *Book A* is written on grade levels 4-5; *Book B* on grade levels 5-6; *Book C* on grade levels 6-7; *Book D* on grade levels 7-8.

Lippincott

McCracken, Glenn and Charles C. Walcutt. *Basic Reading 7 and 8*, 1965. These books provide a linguistic approach to reading "language arts" for grades seven and eight. The students' edition contains only selections. The questions and exercise material are in the teacher's edition.

Guiler, Coleman. *Reading for Meaning Series*, 1965. Paperbound workbooks ranging in content and difficulty from grades 4 through 12. Each workbook contains short reading selections followed by exercises aimed at developing six basic reading skills. The material is not especially interesting or attractive but the built-in motivation of the scores and graphs provides students with evidence of progress.

Lyons & Carnahan

Bond, Guy, et al. The Developmental Reading Series, 1962 Ed. *A Call to Adventure* for grade seven and *Deeds of Men* for grade eight come in a regular edition and in the Classmate Edition which contains the same stories written at a lower level. The *Skill Development Workbook* which accompany both editions extend text book reading experiences into new content. This series provides for a sequential development of reading skills.

Macmillan

Harris, Albert J. and Joseph C. Gainsburg. *Advanced Skills in Reading*, 1967. This three-book series for grades seven and above provides a sequential development of reading skills correlated with English skills. The lessons follow an explanation-example-exercise pattern.

Smiley, et al. *Gateway English*, 1967. This literature and language arts program for grades seven, eight and nine were created for disadvantaged students. Young people with varied backgrounds, working on all ability levels, responded to the organization of the material which provides for discovery and self-realization. The program provides four paper-bound texts, a teacher's manual, a student's workbook, a set of transparencies and a record album.

Smith, et al. *Literary Heritage Series*, 1967. This softback series provides four or five texts, a teacher's manual, recordings and supplementary material for each grade from seven to twelve.

Charles E. Merrill

Jacobs, Leland B. and Shelton L. Root, Jr. *Ideas in Literature Series*, 1966. This series is designed to stimulate students to understand, to appreciate and to evaluate what they read by arranging selections in thematic clusters. The titles are *Variations* for Grade 7, *Directions* for Grade 8 and *Dimensions* for Grade 9. A Teacher's Handbook is provided for each volume.

Spiegler, Charles G. and Helen H. Johnson. *Merrill Mainstream Books*, 1968. These paperback anthologies are designed for inner-city teenagers. The reading levels range from four to seven with material to interest students in grades seven to twelve. These multi-ethnic books, containing selections written by and for Negroes, are titled *Courage Under Fire*, *Against the Odds*, *They Were First*, *In New Directions*, *People Like You*. A Teacher's Manual providing teaching suggestions for each selection.

Hutchinson, et al. *Gaining Independence in Reading Series*, 1968. This series is designed for use in grades five through nine as a basal or a supplement program. The level of maturity of the selections would make it useful for high school remedial students. All explanations and exercises are in the student's books. Titles and reading levels are as follows: *New Landmarks*—Grade 4 and up; *Bright Beacons*—Grade 5 and up; *Far Horizons*—Grade 6 and up.

Johnson, Eleanor. *Modern Reading Skilltexts*, 1966. Paperbound workbooks 1, 2, 3 for junior and senior high school reading programs focus on developing reading skills efficiently. Questions follow each selection. Two standardized diagnostic tests are provided. The lessons are available on tapes for self-checking.

Oxford

Shostak, Jerome. *Vocabulary Workshop*, 1961. Paperbound booklets for each grade from nine through twelve provide vocabulary exercises for reading or English classes.

Prentice-Hall

Smith, Nila Blanton. *Be A Better Reader Series*, Revised Edition. Books I, II, III, IV, V, VI are for grades seven through twelve. Each of these paperbound reading skill development books provides instruction and practice in word recognition and meaning skills, and in

reading for specific purposes in literature, science, social studies and mathematics. A teacher's guide is available with each book. This series is one of the most useful and versatile supplementary materials available.

Carver, et al. *Life in Literature Series*, 1960. This four-book series to teach literary and reading skills is for grades nine through twelve.

Psychotechnics

Powers, Walter. *Optimum Reading Achievement Series*, 1966. The three workbooks in this series contains essays to train students to read silently, to improve reading habits, rate and comprehension of students in grades seven through twelve. The books are nonconsumable. Students may keep records in his own Achievement Chart.

Reader's Digest

The Reading Skill Builders. Supplementary readers contain articles and stories adapted from *The Reader's Digest*. Reading levels 1-6. Three books per level. Practice is provided in comprehension and word power.

Advanced Reading Skill Builders. Grades 7-8. Two books for each level are designated as Books One, Two, Three, Four.

Improve Your Reading. Part I—grade 7, Part II—grade 8. Answer keys are provided so that students may score their own work. A progress chart permits the student to chart his own reading achievement. Designed for junior and senior high school with pointers for improving reading and emphasis on speeded comprehension.

Secrets of Successful Living. One book for grades 7-9. Two books for 9-12. Reading level 6-8. Adapted material from *Digest* articles. Provides extra reading for slower students.

Scholastic

Among the various services available from *Scholastic* are paperback book clubs for individual reading, the *Reader's Choice Catalog* which provides some 500 selected titles in paperback ranging from grades 2-12, *Scholastic Literature Units* for individual differences, and various magazines for classroom enrichment.

The Practical English Reading Skills Workbook. Revised edition, 1963. Paper workbook valuable for supplementary material in Eng-

Science Research
Associates

lish or reading classes, grades 9-12. An appropriate quiz accompanies each selection. Two progress charts are included, one for speed and one for comprehension.

Success With Words, Harold L. Herber. This paperback book may be used independently at the secondary level. Basic words in the areas of social studies, English, science, and mathematics are introduced and practiced by many diverse exercises, including games, puzzles and problems.

Witty, et al. *Developing Your Vocabulary*. Paperbound. High School. Includes techniques for learning new words, use of the dictionary and thesaurus, homonyms, figurative language, meanings and connotations of words.

New Rochester Occupational Reading Series. Use with older pupils with poor reading ability. *The Job Ahead* is a hardbound, multi-level textbook describing in story form the occupational attitudes and skills for job success. Exercise materials in workbook form matching the text levels stress reading and vocabulary development as well as encouraging suitable occupational attitudes. The material is published in three companion volumes with the same content but varying sequentially in degree of reading difficulty. Level I is on the second grade; Level II on grades three and four; and Level III on the fourth and fifth grades.

Witty, Paul, et al. *Reading Improvement Texts. How To Become A Better Reader*. High school or college text. *How To Improve Your Reading*, Revised, 1963. Junior high level text. Adjustment of reading rate to purpose and nature of the material is the focus. Special emphasis is on vocabulary and word building.

SRA Better Reading Books. Elizabeth A. Simpson. Three hardbound volumes in three separate and distinct levels of reading difficulty. Twenty reading selections with corresponding comprehension and vocabulary check. Books focus on improving speed and developing comprehension. Book I, reading levels 5.0-6.9; Book II, reading levels 7.0-8.9; Book III, reading levels 9.0-10.9.

Streamline Your Reading. Paperbound booklet for high school contains tips to increase

reading efficiency, such as reading groups of words and phrases, extracting entire thoughts and complete ideas.

Study Habit Guides. Paperbound manuals as follows: *Learn To Study*, grades 4-7; *How To Be A Better Student*, grades 7-9; *How To Study*, high school.

You Can Read Better. Paperbound booklet providing guidance toward good reading habits, building vocabulary and increasing rate.

Scott-Foresman

Dale, Edgar. *How To Read A Newspaper*, 1941. This older book is still excellent resource or study material on the subject.

Gray, et al. *Basic Reading Skills*, 1958. The two books for junior and senior high respectively provide a good review of basic reading skills. Each includes survey tests to diagnose needs.

Pooley, et al. *America Reads*, 1967. The six anthologies for grades seven through twelve are designed to improve reading skills and literary tastes. *The Teacher's Resource Books* and the student's *Explication and Review* books for each grade level provide practice and extend experiences.

Pooley, et al. *Galaxy Program*, 1964. The three anthologies for grades nine, ten and eleven present high-interest selections who need reading instruction. The Handbook of Reading in each text introduces reading skills. The accompanying workbooks *Tactics In Reading* I, II, and III amplify the skill building. (Tactics in Reading I and II are also available in boxed form.)

Robinson, et al. *The New Basic Reading Program*, 1968. *Dimensions*, Grade 7, and *Challenges*, Grade 8 provide a sequential development of reading skills and are available in multi-ethnic or established editions. Teacher's guides, reading tests and duplicating masters are available for each.

Robinson, et al. *The Open Highways Program*, 1968. *Book 7* and *Book 8* designed for junior high students who need varied, action-packed material. Each text is written on a low level at the beginning and advances gradually to more difficult material. *Skillbooks* and teacher's *Guidebooks* are provided.

Humphreyville, Frances T. and Frances S. Fitzgerald. *Reading for Pleasure*, 1961. *Top Flight*, Book I; *On Target*, Book II. These hardback books are mainly to stimulate reluctant readers at the secondary level.

Singer

Ariffe, et al. *The Singer/Random House Literature Series*, 1967. This series for grades nine through twelve offers four softback books and a teacher's manual at each level.

Steck-Vaughn

Leaven, et al. *Reading Research Series*, 1966. These workbooks present the skills part of the total reading program. *Progress in Reading*, Grade 7, *Mastery in Reading*, Grade 8. *New Goals in Reading*—written at third and fourth grade for remedial junior high students.

Schacter, Norman and John K. Whelan, *Activities for Reading Improvement*, 1964.

These *Worktexts* 1, 2 and 3 are designed to improve reading skills of students in grades seven, eight and nine.

Webster,
McGraw-Hill

Kottmeyer, Ware, *Conquests in Reading*. This workbook teaches basic word recognition skills and exercises apply the skills in context and is useful in secondary classes as needed.

Stone, et al. *Webster New Practice Readers*. Grover, et al. *New Practice Readers*. Books A to G are designed for students whose reading levels are 2 through 8 respectively. The vocabulary development, the short selections, the comprehension questions and the general format make it useful for students at any age.

Laboratories and Programmed Materials

Appleton-Century-Crofts Brown, James I. *Programmed Vocabulary*. 1964. This paperbound text is suitable for college or late high school reading improvement. Using the programmed approach with frames and step-by-step progression, the book is for independent study. Pupils are led to make associations to remember meanings of word elements. Essays follow several lessons and give practice in the material by filling in blanks using words in context.

Arc Books, Inc.

Gruber, Edward C. *2300 Steps to Word Power*. 1963. This vocabulary book works like a teaching machine complete with frames, etc. The major part of the book consists of vocabulary

questions of the multiple-choice variety. Some vocabulary-building questions are in forms of analogies, opposites, and completions.

California Test Bureau

Lessons For Self-Instruction in Basic Skills. These are supplementary programmed aids. The reading series with corresponding grade level includes seven levels graded from 3 to 9. Reading comprehension materials includes reference skills, following directions, levels of interpretation and vocabulary development.

Coronet Building

Coronet Learning Programs. The Coronet Learning Programs are booklets, each about 60-80 pages, containing material to be learned and a self-contained answer panel inside each cover. The material is organized into ten short sets of 25-50 frames intended to be worked in 15-20 minutes. Presentation thus covers a period of about two weeks. A review and self-test are included in the final set of each program. The programs include: *David Discovers the Dictionary* for intermediate and junior high classes. *Figures of Speech* for high school. *How to Improve Your Reading* for junior high school. *Maps: How We Read Them* for intermediate level and junior high. *Vocabulary Growth: Divide and Conquer Words*, high school level. *Your Study Skills* for junior high school level.

Educational
Developmental
Laboratories, Inc.

Robinson, et al. *EDL Study Skills Library.* Grades 4-9. Multi-level, auto-instructional, directed reading activities in test and text selections aim at improvement of reading in the content areas of science, social studies, and reference skills.

Taylor, et al. *EDL Word Clues Series.* This multi-level workbook series' range is grades 7-13. Placement tests are available so that each student may be assigned a book on his level of need. The Word Clues approach helps students build their word power through a method that stresses words in context, high frequency words, planned introduction of words, introduction of words, multiple meanings, and usage. Besides the workbooks, additional materials available in the *Word Clues Series* includes a teacher's guide, tests, flash-x sets with filmstrips and discs, tach-x sets, with filmstrips. The workbooks may be used without this additional material.

Harcourt, Brace, and
World, Inc.

Steps To Better Reading. Books 1, 2, 3. Grades 7, 8, 9. Tests—each level. Teacher's Manual for all three levels. This is programmed material in paperbound booklets. It is developmental rather than remedial. The three books are essentially the same in organization. An introduction presents a short discussion of programmed instruction, a sample program, and a short discussion of reading improvement. The vocabulary section deals with both structural analysis and words in context. Exercises are also provided for practice in speed reading.

Globe Book Co.

Glassman, Jerrold. *Programmed Reading.* 1966. Programmed text to improve reading requires no hardware, is written at about fifth grade level with high school interest level.

Learning Materials,
Inc.

The Literature Sampler. Secondary edition. This laboratory previews 144 highly rated books from reading grade levels 5-11. The selections are from the particular books and are organized into ten areas such as adventure, humor, animals, etc. Reading aids and discussions include how and why questions, explaining best answers, and why other answers are not as adequate. Student curiosity and interest in the book are stimulated by various questions. Paperback books supplement the kit so that students may read the entire work.

The MacMillan Co.

MacMillan Reading Spectrum. 1964. This program is a complex of instructional materials intended for the intermediate grades but very appropriate for junior high school and some levels are appropriate even with older pupils. The program is in two parts. The *Spectrum of Books* is thirty carefully selected titles grouped on five or six reading levels for each intermediate grade. The *Spectrum of Skills* covers three skill areas with six levels of difficulty per area.

McGraw-Hill

Fergus, Patricia M. *Spelling Improvement: A Program of Self-Instruction.* 1964. This programmed spelling text would be useful for poor spellers in grades nine through thirteen.

Macmillan

Davis, Bertha and Norma Michelson. *Learning to Learn: Outlines.* 1967. This programmed text teaches outlining.

The Reading
Laboratory, Inc.

Skill File. This laboratory consists of 175 exercises divided into 8 levels of difficulty. The

Science Research-
Associates

range of grade levels is from 6th through 13th. Topics include exercises in literature, history, natural sciences, social sciences, art, music, humor, sport, and adventure. Types of exercises are varied and range from timed readings and sentence completion to directed reading activities and making inferences.

Advanced Reading Skills Program. High school level for individual use. A series of twenty-four lessons develops four major skill areas in speed and flexibility, comprehension, vocabulary, and critical reading. The complete program includes various books and the reading accelerator.

Graph and Picture Study Skills Kit. Although developed for use in the intermediate grades, this laboratory-type material could serve as a valuable aid in a junior-senior high school remedial reading situation. The pupil works at his own rate and checks his own work. The kit teaches interpretation of a variety of visual aids frequently found in textbooks and newspapers—including graphic forms, charts, diagrams, photographs, and editorial cartoons.

Pilot Library. IIa, grades 2-7; IIb, grades 5-12; IIc, grades 4-9. Intended as supplementary or enrichment material, each library contains 72 unaltered excerpts from popular juvenile literature. Comprehension skills are practiced. Student Record Books or Worksheets contain appropriate comprehension exercises for each selection. The exercises are self-scoring.

Reading For Understanding. General Edition, grades 5-12. Junior Edition, grades 3-8. This laboratory consists of 400 practice lessons on 100 graduated levels of comprehension. Each level has four lessons cards. Ten paragraphs are included on each card. The paragraphs focus on comprehension, reasoning, inference, interpretation, or meaning. The paragraphs have been selected from a variety of interesting topics.

SRA Reading Laboratories. Multi-level. Self-checking. Power and rate selections. Incorporated listening program. Available laboratories include: Lab II a, Levels 2-7; Lab IIb, Levels 3-8; Lab II c, Levels 4-9. Lab III a, Levels 3-12; Lab III a, Levels 3-11 (1964

edition); Lab III b, Levels 5-12; Lab IV a, Levels 8-14.

Markle, Susan Meyer. *Words*. Junior high school level. This programmed course in vocabulary development utilizes the sequential, self-teaching approach together with the process of "branching" briefly mentioned previously. A diagnostic test determines the slow or fast track for a pupil. The functions of roots, prefixes, and suffixes are identified. The text demonstrates how words are put together and how components interchange to form other words.

Scott, Foresman &
Company

Bracken, et al. *Galaxy Program. Tactics in Reading I and Tactics in Reading II*. Grades 9-10. 1961. Boxed classroom set of exercise cards starts at a basic level of understanding and performance. Each succeeding exercise increases in difficulty. The exercises are printed on fifty cards with thirty-five copies of each card included. A diagnostic test and an evaluation test are provided. Reading skills covered are word context, word structure, word sound, the dictionary, imagery, sequence, sentence meaning, inferences, paragraph meaning, and word families. *Tactics in Reading II* is correlated with the tenth grade text in the Galaxy program, *Perspective*. Guidebooks for the teacher accompanies the boxed sets of exercises. *Tactics in Reading I and II* are also available in workbook form.

Univox Institute, Inc.

Univox Teaching Machine—Better Study Habits. This cardboard box is the kind of pseudo-learning device frequently exhibited in supermarkets, drugstores, and other such centers of culture. This particular "instant knowledge" course is in the programmed format with frames and fill-ins. Pupils and parents should be made aware that this kind of "learning tool" is an insufficient panacea at best.

Webster Division,
McGraw-Hill Book
Company

The Reading Skill Cards. Suitable for remedial junior high school use, these are comprehension exercises for reading levels grades 2-8. 224 cards each contain a story or essay of about 180 words. Questions measure comprehension. The cards are color-coded for difficulty. Like the other laboratory material, the cards are for independent and self-checking use.

Mechanical Devices

The following list is not all-inclusive. The teacher selecting materials for reading laboratories should contact companies to examine the latest models and the many new devices appearing frequently.

Audio-Visual Research
Department RT 39
523 S. Plymouth Ct.
Chicago, Ill. 60605

Eye Span Trainer, Model 10. Individual tachistoscope training. Hand-operated shutter.
The Flash Tachment. Converts any 2 x 2 slide or filmstrip projector into a tachistoscope for group use.
Reading Rateometer. Machine to pace or control reading rate.

Craig Research
3410 S. LaCienaga Blvd.
Los Angeles 16, Calif.

Craig Reader. A device to increase reading skills and rate. Programs for junior and senior high are available.

Educational
Developmental
Laboratories, Inc.
Huntington, N. Y. 11744

Controlled Reader 500. Projector for large-group use. *Controlled Reader, Jr. 50.* Individual or small group use. A moving slot travels left to right across a screen. Material is thus covered and uncovered. Speeds range from 60-1000 words per minute.

Flash—X. Individual tachistoscope. Student operates shutter at 1/25 of a second for exposure. Disc sets are available. Vocabulary sets are available from grades 7-13, a set at each level of 300 words.

EDL Reading Eye. This is eye-movement photography to measure how an individual uses his eyes in reading.

Tach—X. This specially designed filmstrip projector for group use has a range of timed exposures from 1/100 of a second to 1½ seconds.

Learning Through
Seeing, Inc.
Sunland, Calif. 91040

Tachisto-Viewer. Individual-use tachistoscope filmstrip viewer.

Psychotechnics
7433 N. Harlem Ave.
Chicago, Ill. 60648

Califone Audio Reader. Provides multi modal approach to teaching.

Hoffman Reader. Uses records and slides to teach reading.

also available—
Read Company
Warsaw, Ind. 46580

Shadowscope. A reading pacer.
Tachomatic 500. A filmstrip projector.
T-matic 150. A tachistoscopic projector.

The Reading
Laboratory, Inc.
New York 36, N. Y.

Cal-Q-Rater. Inexpensive and easily used rule to obtain student reading speed.
Omni Timer. Device to time individuals or groups from 60 seconds to one hour.

- Science Research Associates, Inc.
Chicago, Ill.
- Phrase Flasher.* Tachistoscope reading training device.
Prep Pacer. Electrical reading pacer device.
- Reading Accelerator.* Portable pacing device with speed range from 30-3400 words per minute. Three models.
Reading Calculator. Convert desired rate (words per minute) into proper scale setting to estimate the number of words per page.
Reading Ease Calculator. Pocket plastic disc to estimate difficulty of material.
- Society for Visual Education
1345 Diversey Parkway
Chicago, 14, Ill.
- Speed-I-O-Scope.* Flash mechanism with shutter-like device that mounts on standard still projector.
- Bailey Films, Inc.
6509 De Longpre Ave.
Hollywood, Calif. 90028
- Films and Filmstrips**
Developing Effective Reading-Study Skills. Color and sound filmstrips. Secondary level. This introduction to good study attitudes and habits shows reading in various aspects of life.
- Coronet Films
Chicago 1, Ill.
- How To Read A Book.* 2nd edition. Secondary level. Color or black and white film. 11 minutes. The material includes selecting the best book for a particular purpose; using the parts of a book such as the preface, footnotes, chapter headings and index; the adjustment of speed to purpose; determining the author's point of view; and analyzing and evaluating a particular book.
Reading Improvement Series. Films each 11 minutes. Secondary level. Color or black and white.
Defining The Good Reader.
Word Recognition Skills.
Vocabulary Skills.
Comprehension Skills.
Effective Speeds.
- Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc.
1150 Wilmette Ave.
Wilmette, Ill.
- Better Reading.* 13 minutes. Color and black and white.
Learning To Study. 14 minutes. Black and white. This secondary level film is an introduction to good study habits.
Using The Library. 6 color filmstrips. Intermediate level. The series, suitable for junior high school, covers the card catalog, book classification, dictionary, encyclopedia, and special reference books.

Eye Gate House, Inc.
146-01 Archer Ave.
Jamacia 35, N. Y.

Advanced Reading Skills. 10 color filmstrips. The emphasis is on reading comprehension.

Fundamentals of Reading. 9 color filmstrips. Suitable for remedial junior high use, drill is provided in the mechanics of reading, phonetics, and reading comprehension.

Fundamentals of Thinking. 8 filmstrips. The areas of analyzing assumptions, comparing, thinking critically, interpreting, solving problems, and summarizing are covered.

Fundamentals of Vocabulary Building. 9 color filmstrips. Junior high school level.

Read Company
Warsaw, Ind. 46580
The State University
of Iowa

Design for Good Reading. Book I and Book II. Reading Training Filmstrips.

Reading Effectively. This film is an introduction to reading improvement that provides

Bureau of Audio-Visual
Instruction
Iowa City, Iowa

specific orientation to the Iowa Reading Films. *The Iowa Reading Films High School Series Revised.* These films are designed primarily to increase reading rate and as a consequence of establishing better reading habits, to improve reading comprehension. The Manual of Instructions for the series contains for each film a comprehension check of ten questions to be given after the showing.

McGraw-Hill Text Films
330 W. 42nd St.
New York 36, N. Y.

How To Read Literature Series. 6 color filmstrips. Focus on the pertinent skills and the general relationship of literature to life. Types included are the historical novel, narrative poem, short story, and one-act play.

Library Series. 6 filmstrips. Secondary level. The dictionary, the encyclopedia, Dewey Decimal System, and card catalogue are covered.

Library Tools Series. 6 color filmstrips. Secondary level.

Understanding Poetry Series. 6 color filmstrips.

Word Study Series. 6 color filmstrips.

Purdue University
The Audio-Visual Center
Lafayette, Ind.

How Well Do You Read? Film. Presents techniques for increasing rate-comprehension, and discusses eye fixations, speed readers, reading laboratories, and reading films.

The Purdue Reading Films — Junior High School Series. The films are a group teaching device to provide training in some of the fundamentals of good reading.

The Purdue Reading Films—High School Series. These films, like the other two sets in the Purdue Reading Films, are aimed at increasing speed of perception, inducing regularity in eye movement, widening reading span and eliminating involuntary regressions. The instructor's books for the three films listed above the texts of all films and comprehension checks.

The Reading
Laboratory, Inc.
New York 36, N. Y.

Cut Your Reading Time. Black and white film. Sound 15 minutes. Introduction to developmental reading.

Society for Visual
Education, Inc.
Chicago 14, Ill.

School Skills for Today and Tomorrow. 6 color filmstrips. Junior or senior high school level. Study and reference materials are covered.

Young America Films,
Inc.
18 E. 41st St.
New York 17, N. Y.

Word Study Series. 6 color filmstrips. Secondary level. The series cover word origins, derivations from other languages, changing meanings, and word building devices.

READING TESTS

Some of the reading tests useful with secondary students are listed in the chapter on testing. The many tests available make it impossible to list all of them. Teachers should set the purpose for giving a test, then examine specimen sets to evaluate them. Most publishers will send up-to-date information about their tests and will supply examination kits at a nominal price. Sources of reliable information about tests include:

Bond, Guy T., Miles A. Tinker. *Reading Difficulties Their Diagnosis and Correction.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957, pp. 461-468.

Buros, Oscar K. (Ed.). *The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook.* Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1965, p. XXXVI + 1714. \$32.50.

Buros, Oscar K. (Ed.). *Tests In Print,* Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1961, p. XXIX + 479.

Karlin, Robert. *Teaching Reading in High School,* Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill, 1963, pp. 288-289.

Spache, George, *Toward Better Reading,* Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1963, pp. 435-447.

The Reading Improvement Handbook. Oshkosh, Wisconsin: Reading Improvement, pp. 37-48. A list of publishers of tests is also included in this book.

Karlin in his book *Teaching Reading in High School* lists the following reading and study skills tests:

California Reading Test, Intermediate (Grades 7-9), Advanced (Grades 9-14). Los Angeles: California Test Bureau.

Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test, Forms 1A (for typical students in grades 13-14 and superior students in grade 12). Princeton: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

- Davis Reading Test* (Grades 11-13). New York: Psychological Corporation.
- Diagnostic Reading Tests*, Upper Level (Grade 7-College Freshman Year). Mountain Home, North Carolina: The Committee on Diagnostic Tests, Inc.
- Gates-MacGinitie* (Form D—Grades 7-9, Form E—Grades 10-12). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills, Test A*, Silent Reading Comprehension. Advanced (Grades 6-8). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills, Test B*, Work-Study Skills, Advanced (Grades 6-8). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Iowa Silent Reading Tests*, Advanced (High School and College). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Kelley-Greene Reading Comprehension Test* (Grades 9-13). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Metropolitan Achievement Tests: Reading*, Advanced (Grades 7-9). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, Reading*, Forms 2B (Grades 10-12), 3B (Grades 7-9). Princeton: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.
- Spitzer Study Skills Test* (Grades 9-13). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- SRA Achievement Series: Reading* (Grades 6-9). Chicago: Science Research Associates.
- SRA Achievement Series: Work-Study Skills* (Grades 6-9). Chicago: Science Research Associates.
- Stanford Achievement Tests: Reading*, Advanced (Grades 7-9). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Stanford Achievement Tests: Study Skills*, Advanced (Grades 7-9). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.

Elementary Level Reading Tests
(For Students with Reading Disabilities)

- California Reading Test*, Primary (Grades 1-4), Elementary (Grades 4-6). Los Angeles: California Test Bureau.
- Diagnostic Reading Tests*, Lower Level (Grades 4-6). Mountain Home, North Carolina: The Committee on Diagnostic Tests, Inc.
- Gates Advanced Primary Reading Test* (Grades 2-3). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Gates Primary Reading Test* (Grades 1-2). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Gates Reading Survey* (Grades 3-10). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Gilmore Oral Reading Test* (Grades 1-8). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Gray Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs* (Grades 1-8). Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc.
- Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills, Test A*, Elementary (Grades 4-8). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.

- Iowa Silent Reading Test*, Elementary (Grades 4-8). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Metropolitan Reading Test*, Primary (Grades 2-3), Elementary (Grades 3-4), Intermediate (Grades 5-6). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Stanford Achievement Tests: Reading*, Primary (Grades 1-3), Elementary (Grades 3-4), Intermediate (Grades 5-6). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.

Lists of Books for Recreational Reading

- Books for You*, 1964 Edition, Grades 9-12. National Council of Teachers of English.
- Carlsen, G. Robert. *Books and the Teen-Ager*, New York: Harper and Row, 1967.
- College and Adult Reading List*, National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.
- Crosby, Murial, *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*, American Council on Education, 1963.
- Dunn, Anita E., and Jackman, Mabel E. *Fare for the Reluctant Reader*, Third Edition, Albany, New York: Capital Area School Development Association, 1964.
- Emery, Raymond C. and Houshower, Margaret B. *High Interest—Easy Reading for Junior and Senior High School Reluctant Readers*, Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.
- Fry, Edward and Johnson, Warren. *Books for Remedial Reading*, Elementary English 35:373-379, October 1958, NCTE.
- Gaver, Mary V. *The Elementary School Library Collection*, Bro-Dart, Foundation, 1965.
- Hall, Elva Jean. *Personal Problems of Children*, Campbell and Hall, Boston, 1964. (A list of books to help students from primary grades through high school to understand and to learn to live with their personal problems.)
- Horizons Unlimited*. A reading list for Juniors and Seniors not college bound. National Council of Teachers of English, 1966. (Prepared by the Indiana Council of Teachers of English.)
- Paperbound Book Guide for High Schools*, New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1180 Avenue of the Americas, 1965.
- Publications 1967-68*, Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'rith, New York. This pamphlet lists books to help students understand people of other races and other viewpoints.
- Spache, George D. *Good Reading for Poor Readers*, Garrard Press, Champaign, Illinois, 1966.
- Strang, Ruth; Phelps, Ethlyne; and Withrow, Dorothy. *Gateways to Readable Books*: an annotated graded list of books in many fields for adolescents who find reading difficult. H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1958.
- Sullivan, Helen Blair, and Tolman, Lorraine E. High Interest-Low Vocabulary Reading Materials: A Selected Booklist, *Journal of Education*, 139:1-132, December 1956.
- The Paperback Goes to School*, Bureau of Independent Publishers and Distributors, 10 East 40th Street, New York 16, New York, 1966.

West, Dorothy H. and Shor, Rachel. *Children's Catalog*, H. W. Wilson Company, 1961.

Your Reading, 1966 Edition, Grades 7-9, National Council of Teachers of English.

Recommended Magazines

American Girl. Grades 5-8. Girl Scouts, Inc.

Boy's Life. Grades 5-9. Boy Scouts of America, Inc.

Co-Ed. Grades 7-12. Scholastic Book Services.

Every Week. Grades 8-10. American Education Publications.

Hot Rod. Grades 6-12. Trend, Inc.

Junior Scholastic. Grades 6-8. Scholastic Book Services.

Mechanics Illustrated. Grades 6-12. Fawcett Publications, Inc.

Outdoor Life. Grades 7-9. Popular Science Publishing Company.

Literary Cavalcade. Senior high school. Scholastic Book Services.

Popular Mechanics. Grades 6-12. Popular Mechanics Company.

Popular Science. Grades 6-12. Popular Mechanics Company.

Practical English. Grades 9-12. Scholastic Book Services.

Read. Grades 7-12. American Education Publications.

Reader's Digest Educational Edition. Grades 7-12. Reader's Digest Services.

Scope. Grades 9-12 (written at 4-6 level). Scholastic Book Services.

Senior Scholastic. Senior high school. Scholastic Book Services.

List of Publishers

Allyn and Bacon, 310 W. Polk St., Chicago, Illinois 60607

American Book Company, 55 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 10003

Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 34 W. 33rd St., New York, N. Y. 10001

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y. 10016

Arc Books, Inc., 480 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10017

Audio-Visual Research, 523 S. Plymouth Ct., Chicago, Illinois 60605

Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood, California 90028

Barnell Loft, Ltd., 111 S. Centre Ave., Rockville Centre, N. Y.

Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 4300 W. 62nd St., Indianapolis, Indiana

R. R. Bowker Company, 1180 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N. Y.

Bro-Dart Foundation, 56 Earl St., Newark, New Jersey

Bureau of Independent Publishers and Distributors, 10 E. 40th St., New York, N. Y. 10016

Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 W. 120th St., New York, N. Y. 10027

Burgess Publishing Co., 426 S. 6th St., Minneapolis, Minnesota 55415

California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Los Angeles, California 90028

Campbell & Hall, Inc., 131 Clarendon St., Boston, Massachusetts 02117

Cambridge University Press, American Branch, 32 E. 57th St., New York, N. Y. 10022

Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc., Mountain Home, North Carolina

Continental Press, Inc., 520 E. Bainbridge St., Elizabethtown, Pennsylvania

Coronet Building, 65 East S. Water St., Chicago 60601
 Coronet Films, 65 East S. Water St., Chicago, Illinois 60601
 Craig Research, Inc., 3410 S. La Cienega Blvd., Los Angeles, California 90016
 Developmental Reading Distributors, 1944 Sheridan, Laramie, Wyoming
 Educational Development Laboratories, Inc., 75 Prospect St., Huntington, N. Y.
 Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Illinois
 Eye Gate House, Inc., 146-01 Archer Ave., Jamaica, N. Y. 10036
 Follett Publishing Company, 1010 W. Washington Blvd., Chicago, Illinois 60607
 Garrard Press, Champaign, Illinois 61820
 Ginn and Company, 450 W. Algonquin Rd., Arlington Heights, Illinois 60005
 Globe Book Company, 175 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 10010
 Gryphon Press, Highland Park, New Jersey
 C. S. Hammond & Company, Maplewood, New Jersey
 Harcourt, Brace, and World, 7555 Caldwell Ave., Chicago, Illinois
 Harper and Row, Inc., 49 E. 33rd St., New York, N. Y. 10016
 D. C. Heath & Company, 2700 Richardt, Indianapolis, Indiana
 Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. 10017
 Houghton-Mifflin Company, Geneva, Illinois 60134
 Indiana Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, State House, Indianapolis, Indiana 46204
 International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware 19711
 Laidlaw Brothers, Thatcher and Madison, River Forest, Illinois 60305
 Learning Materials, Inc., 425 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Illinois 60611
 Learning Through Seeing, Box 368, Sunland, California
 J. B. Lippincott Company, E. Washington Square, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19105
 Longmans, Green and Company, 119 W. 40th St., New York, N. Y. 10018
 The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 10011
 McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Department, 330 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. 10036
 McGraw-Hill Book Company, Mid-Continent Distrib. Center, Manchester, Road, Manchester, Missouri 63011
 Charles E. Merrill, 1300 Alum Creek Dr., Columbus, Ohio 43216
 National Council of Teachers of English, 508 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Illinois 61820
 National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D. C.
 Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
 Oxford Book Company, 71 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 10003
 Oxford University Press, 1600 Pollitt Dr., Fair Lawn, New Jersey 07410
 Odyssey Press, 55 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 10003
 Princeton: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service
 Psychological Corporation, New York, N. Y.
 Psychotechnics, 7433 N. Harlem Ave., Chicago, Illinois 60648
 Purdue University, The Audio-Visual Center, Lafayette, Indiana
 Read Company, Warsaw, Indiana 46580

Reader's Digest Services, Inc., Education Division, Pleasantville, N. Y.
 10570
 The Reading Laboratory, 370 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y. 10017
 Reading Improvement, Box 125, Oshkosh, Wisconsin 54901
 Ronald Press, 15 E. 26th St., New York, N. Y. 10010
 Scholastic Book Services, 33 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. 10036
 Science Research Associates, Inc., 259 E. Erie St., Chicago, Illinois 60611
 Scott, Foresman and Company, 433 E. Erie St., Chicago, Illinois 60611
 L. W. Singer Co., Inc., 110 River Rd., Des Plaines, Illinois 60016
 Steck-Vaughn Co., Box 2028, Austin, Texas 78767
 State University of Iowa, Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, Iowa City,
 Iowa
 Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Illinois
 Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 525 W.
 120th St., New York, N.Y. 10027
 University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago, Illinois 60637
 Univox Institute, Inc., 521 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
 Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Manchester Road, Man-
 chester, Missouri 63062
 H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Ave., New York, N. Y. 10052
 Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41st St., New York, N. Y. 10017